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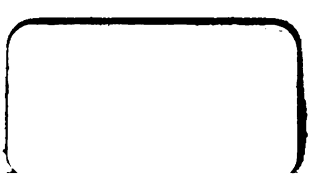

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ABRAHAM LINCOLN

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THE WORLD'S GREAT EVENTS

AN INDEXED HISTORY OF THE WORLD FROM EARLIEST TIMES TO THE PRESENT DAY

BY

GREAT HISTORIANS

EDITED BY

ESTHER SINGLETON

EDITOR OF "THE STORY OF THE UNIVERSE," "TURRETS, TOWERS AND TEMPLES," "ROMANTIC CASTLES AND PALACES," "WONDERS OF NATURE," ETC.

ILLUSTRATED

VOLUME SEVEN

FROM A. D. 1848 TO A. D. 1899

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THE REVOLUTION OF 1848

W. ALISON PHILLIPS

THE February Revolution in Paris was not the cause of the political upheaval which, in 1848, convulsed Europe from Ireland to the banks of the Danube. It had been preceded by the victory of Liberalism in Switzerland, by the successful revolutions in Naples and Palermo, and by the proclamation of a Constitution in Piedmont. But, flaming out in the very centre of the European system, it was, as it were, the beacon fire which gave the signal for the simultaneous outbreak of revolutionary movements which, though long prepared, might but for this have been detached and spasmodic. The shock of the political cataclysm was felt in the remotest corners of Europe. Republican agitations in Spain and Belgium, Chartist gatherings in England, Fenian unrest in Ireland, seemed for a time to threaten to emulate the revolutionary victories in France. But the true interest of the movements of 1848 was rapidly concentrated in central Europe, wherever Austrian diplomacy and Austrian arms had

Influence of the February Revolution upon Europe.

sought to throw a dam across the advancing tide of National and Liberal sentiment. The history of the Revolutionary movements of 1848 is, in fact, not only in the Austrian Empire itself, but in Germany and in Italy, that of collapse of the Austrian system before the revolutionary forces it had sought to control, and of its marvellous recovery, due to the irreconcilable divisions in the ranks of the forces by which it had been overthrown.

Effect in Austria.

The scandal of the Gallacian rising had been but the most flagrant of a multitude of proofs of the utter bloodlessness of the Austrian administration. From the news of the February Revolution the government of the Hofburg could draw no better moral for the Viennese than the tendency of all constitutional government to degenerate into Communism. But the loyal Austrians were in a mood to accept the risk. "Rather a constitutional hell than an absolutist paradise!" was the cry—and Austria in 1848 was by no means a heaven. The state was on the verge of bankruptcy; and, since no accounts were ever published, the popular imagination painted affairs even worse than they were. The proclamation of the government, calling on the people to rally to the throne, was answered, on March 4, by a run on the banks, and a political would have followed the financial crisis, even without the impulse given to it by events in Hungary.

The news of the downfall of the July Monarchy found the Diet at Pressburg engaged in the discussion of a programme of moderate reform. The effect on the imaginative and excitable Magyars was electric. The cautious policy of conservative change seemed utterly inadequate to the greatness of the crisis; and Kossuth, in his famous speech of March 3, gave voice to the new and wider aspirations of the Magyar race, whose liberties could never be secure so long as the nations beyond the Leitha groaned under absolute rule. "From the charnel-house of the Vienna cabinet a pestilential air breathes on us, which dulls our nerves and paralyzes the flight of our spirit!" Hungary, then, must have a truly national government, with a ministry responsible to the people; and, herself free, must become the guarantee of freedom for all the Austrian races. The effect of this speech in Hungary and beyond was immense. "To replace the bad cement of bayonets and official oppression by the firm mortar of a free Constitution" was an object which appealed to the enlightened sentiment of every race in the Austrian dominions. It was less easy to reconcile conflicting views as to the exact position to be occupied by the various nationalities in this new "fraternization of the Austrian peoples." Hitherto Germanism had formed the basis of the Austrian system, not as a national ideal, but because "it formed a sort of unna-

Kossuth's speech of March 3.

Effects of the speech.

tional, mediating, and common element among the contradictory and clamorous racial tendencies." But with the growth of the idea of national unity in Germany itself, Germanism had established a new ideal, having its centre outside the boundaries of the Austrian Empire, and which brought it into direct antagonism with the aspirations of the other races. Between the traditional German ascendency, strengthened by the new sentiment of a united Germany, and this new doctrine of the fraternization of the Austrian nationalities, a conflict was inevitable.

Revolution in Bohemia and Vienna.

For the moment, however, the divergent tendencies of the popular ideals were overlooked in the general enthusiasm. It was not in Pressburg only that the spark from Paris had fallen on inflammable material, though the agitation for reform did not at once assume a violent form. In Prague, on March 11, a great meeting convened by the "young Czechs" agreed on a petition to the Crown, embodying Nationalist and Liberal demands; and, on the same day, at Vienna, the Diet of Lower Austria passed an address to the Emperor praying for the convocation of delegates of the provincial Diets to set order into the tangled affairs of the Austrian finances. In this moderate demand of the Diet the government, next day, timidly acquiesced. But the

Vienna is aroused.

slightest concession from above was perilous in the present temper of the Viennese, roused

as they were at last from their "sleep of hibernating beasts." A mob of students and workmen invaded the hall of the Diet; Kossuth's speech was read; its proposals were accepted as the popular programme; and the members of the Diet were forced to lead the crowd in tumultuous procession to the Hofburg, to force from the Government its assent to a petition based on all the catchwords of the Revolution. Not till the mob was thundering at the door of his cabinet did Metternich believe that the incredible had happened, and loyal Vienna become a second Paris. Hastily placing his resignation in the hands of the Emperor, the old chancellor escaped from the palace and passed into exile.

Fall of Metternich, May 13, 1848

The effect produced by the news of Metternich's fall was stupendous. It was not that an experienced hand had been suddenly removed from the helm of state. The natural indolence of the chancellor had grown upon him with age, and he was no longer the shrewd statesman of former years. Of his diplomatic talent little survived but his capacity for more or less impressive phrase-making. The ship of the state was no more helpless without than with this pilot. But his name had become associated indissolubly with a system; and just as in 1789, the Fall of the Bastille had been hailed as the symbol of the opening of a new era, so that of Metternich was welcomed in 1848 as marking the collapse of the com-

bination of the reactionary Powers against liberty.

Revolution in Hungary.

The reaction upon affairs in Hungary was immediate. The centre of political influence was transferred suddenly from constitutional Pressburg to revolutionary Pesth. On March 14, a mass meeting, held in the Hungarian capital, passed the "twelve points," which practically involved the entire remodelling of the old Magyar Constitution on the lines of modern Liberalism; and at the same time a "Committee of Public Safety" was appointed to watch over the interests of the Revolution. Kossuth threw himself with ardor into the Radical cause; and the Diet, divided within, and intimidated from without, did no more than register the decrees of the Revolutionary party, hoping to preserve in this way at least the semblance of power. On March 15 were passed those "March Laws" which formed henceforward the basis of the Magyar demands, and exhibited the twofold tendency of Hungarian Liberalism.

The "March Laws."

Revolution in Bohemia.

The example of Hungary was speedily followed by Bohemia. The situation here was complicated not only by the antagonism between the aristocratic Estates and the Revolutionary party, but also by that between the Czechs and Germans. The new Constitution took no time in the making, and on April 8 was solemnly proclaimed at Prague.

In Italy, too, it was the news of the fall of

Metternich that precipitated the national uprising. This had, it is true, been expected for months; and the Austrian commander-in-chief, Marshal Radetzky, had made preparations for dealing with it. None the less, when, on March 18, the news of the Vienna revolution reached Milan and the Lombards rose, the Austrians were taken by surprise. Radetzky, unable to hold his own in the city, withdrew his troops, and retired on Verona. At last the hour seemed to have come to strike a decisive blow for the emancipation of Italy; and, at the invitation of the Milanese, Charles Albert determined to come to their aid. On March 23, Piedmont formally declared war on Austria, and the Piedmontese troops crossed the frontier into Lombardy. All Italy seemed at last united in a common enthusiasm for the expulsion of the foreigner. All the governments, either willingly, or coerced by public opinion, sent contingents to fight for the Italian cause. The Neapolitan army marched northward under the command of the veteran Pepe; and even the Pope blessed the standards which were to float in the national army over the soldiers of the Church.

The Italian States unite against Austria, March, 1848.

Piedmont attacks Austria.

While all Italy was advancing to expel the Austrians from Lombardy, Daniele Manin, on March 22, had, after a bloodless revolution, ousted them from Venice, and proclaimed on the great Piazza the Republic of St. Mark. In the Italian Tyrol, too, an agi-

The Republic of St. Mark.

tation was rising for union with Italy. Threatened from so many sides, and unsupported from the centre, the Austrian rule in Italy seemed doomed; and voices were raised in the councils of the Empire for cutting off the Italian provinces and concentrating the efforts of the Government on the preservation of Austria as a league of federated states. That the Italian provinces were, for a time, preserved to Austria was due to the indomitable character and keen vision of the veteran Radetzky, who saw clearly the numerous elements of weakness on the Italian side, and realized that if Austria were content to wait she would be victorious. But, meanwhile, the conviction which Radetzky had succeeded in impressing on the Vienna Cabinet that the fate of Austria would be decided in Italy, by depleting the north of troops, gave free play to the forces of Revolution.

The Revolution in Germany.

Nowhere was the crippling of the Austrian power more fruitful of results than in Germany. Liberal opinion was organized before the February Revolution; and as early as September 12, 1847, a meeting of representative Liberals at Heppenheim had drawn up a political programme on revolutionary lines. When, therefore, the news of the Revolution in Paris excited popular fervor to fever pitch, the governments of the separate states found themselves powerless, face to face with a united public opinion. Accustomed to look

for support to Vienna, the preoccupation of Austria left them helpless, and they had to yield with the best grace possible. As usual, the South was the cradle of the Revolutionary movement, whence it rapidly spread to the smaller states of central Germany. Then suddenly came the news of the Revolution of March 13 in Vienna, and of the fall of Metternich. Prussia at once caught the revolutionary infection. On March 15 barricades began to appear in the streets of Berlin, and the next day a riot was suppressed by the troops with some loss of life. The King, kind-hearted and agonized at being at odds with his beloved Berliners, realizing, too, that the collapse of Austria had made impossible the plans for the reform of the Confederation which he had been negotiating at Vienna, consented to open negotiations with the Liberal leaders on the basis of German "nationality," accepted the greater part of Gagern's programme and summoned the united Diet for April 3, with a view to discussing the Constitution. Next day, on March 18, a great crowd surrounded the palace. Its demeanor on the whole was loyal enough, but certain less reputable elements in it raised seditious cries, and the King ordered the courtyard to be cleared. In course of doing this a couple of shots were fired, intentionally or by accident. Instantly the loyal crowd was turned into a revolutionary mob. Cries of "Treason!" were

Revolution in Berlin.

Street fighting.

raised and a sanguinary battle began between citizens and soldiery. It would now have been easily possible to crush the Revolution; and had the King been capable of a politic severity, Prussia could have taken in 1848 the position which it cost her two sanguinary wars to achieve; for no Power, least of all Austria, was in a position to dispute her assumption of the leadership of Germany.

For the moment, indeed, the German movement was as little under the control of Prussia as of Austria. The revolutionary forces were in the ascendant; and even the Diet was carried away by their impulse, hoisted the German tricolor, and on March 30 gave its consent to the convocation of a German National Parliament. The general constitution of this body had already been decided by the National Convention, which had met, on the initiative of the Liberal leaders, without any authorization from the governments. This was now accepted by the Diet in the name of the German princes, and on May 18 the first German National Parliament met at Frankfort. Thus scarce two months after the fall of Metternich, the Revolution was to all appearance everywhere triumphant. But in the very ease and completeness of the triumph lay the seeds of failure. The conflicting elements of the Liberal forces which, in a more bitter and protracted struggle, might have learned to bear and forbear, had no stomach for com-

German Parliament opened, May 18, 1848

promise, in view of the utter collapse of the common foe. Extremists and moderates alike overestimated the defeat of the reactionary Powers, and fell to quarrelling over the spoils before the victory had been rendered really secure. The reactionary Powers had, in effect, been taken by surprise, and stunned rather than crushed. Austria especially, after the first staggering blows, was beginning to show signs of unexpected vitality; and it was recognized that, as her collapse had made the success of the revolutionary movements possible, so her recovery would involve their ultimate failure. Two things contributed mainly to the surprising power of resistance of Austria—her imperial tradition and her army. The former saved the crown of the Hapsburgs from going under in the chaos of national rivalries within their own dominions, and by casting its spell over the deliberations of the German Parliament and the mind of the King of Prussia, postponed for eighteen years the creation, at Austria's expense, of a united Germany. The latter, shaped in the mold of an iron discipline, and for the most part untouched by revolutionary or nationalist sentiment, once released from its entanglement in Italy, would form a formidable weapon in the hands of the reaction. With the fortunes of Italy, then, those of the revolution were bound up.

Austria and the reaction.

[In 1850, the Pope arouses great indignation by appointing Catholic Bishops to English sees. California is admitted to the Union as a free State; and a severe fugitive slave law is passed. The great Tai Ping rebellion breaks out in China. In Australia, Victoria is separated from New South Wales. In 1851, Palmerston is dismissed for approving of the French *coup d'état* without consulting the Cabinet or Queen of England. The first submarine cable is laid between Dover and Calais. Austrian troops occupy Holstein. Gold is discovered in New South Wales. The Great Exhibition is opened in Hyde Park.]

Tai Ping rebellion.

First submarine cable laid.

THE GREAT EXHIBITION

(A.D. 1851)

SIR THEODORE MARTIN

IN the celebrated Frankfort Fairs of the Sixteenth Century may be found the germ of the Industrial Exhibitions of our own era. Of what these were, the great Greek scholar, Henri Estienne, has left an animated description in his *Franco fordiense Emporium,* published in 1574. "So great," he says, "and so diversified is the wealth of this market, that it in a manner comprises all others within itself, and they seem to be derived from it as rivers from their source, and as Rome was formerly called the Compendium of the World, so, methinks, I should speak within bounds were I to say that the Fair of Frankfort ought to be called the Epitome of all the Markets of the World."* All the Industrial products of Europe, those that ministered not only to the necessities but also

The Frankfort Fairs of the Sixteenth Century.

* In a letter, dated May 15, 1851, from the Chevalier Bunsen to Max Müller, he says: "The Exhibition is and will remain the most poetical event of our time, and one deserving a place in the world's history."

to the refinements of life—books, pictures, sculpture, tapestry, the masterpieces of the armorers', the goldsmiths', and the jewellers' art—were drawn together to this convenient commercial centre from all parts of the Continent of Europe. Every invention in machinery that could make one pair of hands do the work of many, or do work better than had been done before, was sure to find its way there. It was a field where ingenuity of all kinds was certain of recognition. Great machines or simple devices to make domestic life easier or more comfortable were equally welcome. Estienne turns away from the mention of "machines of exceeding ingenuity and worthy of Archimedes himself, and numberless instruments adapted for use in the different arts," to speak with admiration of an invention for roasting, which would supersede the services of a human turnspit.

Estienne's description.

The French were the first to adopt the idea of bringing together great public collections of works of art and industry with a view to the improvement of both. Exhibitions of this nature were held on a very considerable scale in Paris, in 1798, the sixth year of the first Republic, and again in 1801, 1802, 1806, 1819, 1823, 1827, 1834, 1844, and 1849. Our own Society of Arts held several Exhibitions of the same kind upon a smaller scale. These had produced very beneficial results in raising the quality of our manufactures; and it

The first French Exhibitions

seemed to the Prince that the time had come, when an Exhibition might be attempted, which would afford the means of showing what every country was able to produce in the shape of raw materials, in machinery and mechanical inventions, in manufactures, and also in sculpture, in plastic art, and generally in art as applied to manufactures. Such an Exhibition, if successfully carried out, could not fail to produce results of permanent benefit in many ways. To put the argument for it on the lowest grounds, it would enable the active spirits of all nations to see where they stood, what other nations had done and were doing, what new markets might be opened, what new materials turned to account, how they might improve their manufacturing processes, and what standards of excellence they must aim at in the general competition which steam and railroads, it was now seen, would before long establish throughout the whole world.

The Prince propounds his views.

At a meeting at Buckingham Palace, on the 30th of July, 1849, the Prince propounded his views to four of the most active members of the Society of Arts—Mr. Thomas Cubitt, Mr. Henry Cole, Mr. Francis Fuller, and Mr. John Scott Russell. He had already settled in his own mind the objects of which the Exhibition should consist; and in these no material change was subsequently made. The Government, with whom the Prince had pre-

viously taken counsel, had offered the area within Somerset House for the purposes of the Exhibition. This was obviously too contracted, and various other sites were suggested; but that in Hyde Park, which was ultimately used, was proposed by the Prince, even thus early, as affording advantages "which few other places might be found to possess." It was, accordingly, resolved to apply for it to the proper authorities; and the application met with the approval of the Government.

Sounding the manufacturers.

The first step to be taken manifestly was to ascertain whether such an Exhibition would be regarded with favor by the great body of manufacturers throughout the kingdom. Mr. Cole, Mr. Fuller, and Mr. Digby Wyatt undertook the necessary inquiries. They were soon able to report—the two former coming to Balmoral for the purpose—that the idea was taken up with warm interest wherever they went, and that no jealousy or distrust was likely to lead to the withholding from the Exhibition any of the great discoveries in industrial machinery, which were especially looked to as likely to give distinctive value to the Exhibition. Means were taken to enlist the sympathies of our Colonies, and the East India Company were among the first to promise their active assistance. Communications were also opened with the Continental States; since upon the way they viewed the scheme much of its success would necessarily depend. In

The Great Exhibition projected.

such matters a strong example does much, and this was set by France.

The time had now come for the Prince to place before the world, in his own words, his conception of the scope and purpose of the proposed Exhibition. The opportunity for doing so was afforded by a banquet given, upon a magnificent scale, at the Mansion House, on the 21st of March, to which the chief officers of State, the Foreign Ambassadors, the Royal Commissioners for the Exhibition, and the chief magistrates of more than two hundred towns had been invited. The Prince had by this time accustomed the public to expect much from his addresses; but in broad and comprehensive grasp of view, and in condensed fulness and vigor of expression, none of them was superior to the speech which he now made. The prospect which it shadowed out of the great family of man, drawn together by the bond of mutual helpfulness and enlightened emulation of the arts of civilized life, had been the dream of poets and sages. No one knew better than the Prince, profoundly versed as he was in the history of the past, and still more in the stormy politics of the present, that this must long continue to be a climax seen only in prophetic vision of the throes and struggles of the human race, and that the halcyon days of universal peace were certainly not to be looked for in the present epoch, nor it might be for many gen-

Banquet at the Mansion House, March 21, 1850.

The Prince's foresight.

erations to come. But his eminently practical genius saw that the time had arrived to give such an impulse toward this desirable result, as might greatly accelerate its arrival, and that it was from England this impulse might most fitly come. "England's mission, duty, and interest," he had written to Lord John Russell, on the 5th of September, 1847, "is to put herself at the head of the diffusion of civilization and the attainment of liberty." She might lose some of her material advantages by teaching other nations the arts and methods by which she had developed her internal resources and commanded the markets of the world. She might draw upon herself a competition in these markets, which might otherwise have long been postponed. But the same energy, the same intellectual activity which had put her in the van of nations, the Prince believed would enable her to hold her place under any alteration of circumstances. In any case, whatever might be said by detractors of her insular narrowness and selfishness, he understood her people too well to doubt that they would see with pleasure the spread throughout the world of the blessings which they had conquered for themselves, and be content to run even considerable risks in accelerating that better understanding of each other, without which the unity of mankind is impossible. The general satisfaction created by the parts of his speech now to be quoted,

His belief.

showed that in this estimate of British feeling he had not been mistaken:—

The Prince's speech.

"I conceive it to be the duty of every educated person closely to watch and study the time in which he lives, and, as far as in him lies, to add his humble mite of individual exertion to further the accomplishment of what he believes Providence to have ordained.

"Nobody, however, who has paid any attention to the peculiar features of our present era, will doubt for a moment that we are living at a period of most wonderful transition, which tends rapidly to accomplish that great end, to which, indeed, all history points—*the realization of the unity of mankind.* Not a unity which breaks down the limits and levels of the peculiar characteristics of the different nations of the earth, but rather a unity the *result and product* of those very national varieties and antagonistic qualities.

"The distances which separated the different nations and parts of the globe are rapidly vanishing before the achievements of modern invention, and we can traverse them with incredible ease; the languages of all nations are known, and their acquirement placed within the reach of everybody; thought is communicated with the rapidity, and even by the power, of lightning. On the other hand, the *great principle of the division of labor,* which may be called the moving power of civiliza-

Division of labor.

tion, is being extended to all branches of science, industry, and art.

"While formerly the great mental energies strove at universal knowledge, and that knowledge was confined to the few, now they are directed on specialties, and in these, again, even to the minutest points; but the knowledge acquired becomes at once the property of the community at large; for, while formerly discovery was wrapped in secrecy, the publicity of the present day causes that no sooner is a discovery or invention made than it is already improved upon and surpassed by competing efforts. The products of all quarters of the globe are placed at our disposal, and we have only to choose which is the best and the cheapest for our purposes, and the powers of production are intrusted to the stimulus of *competition and capital.*

Competition and capital.

"So man is approaching a more complete fulfilment of that great and sacred mission which he has to perform in this world. His reason being created after the image of God, he has to use it to discover the laws by which the Almighty governs his creation, and by making these laws his standard of action, to conquer nature to his use; himself a divine instrument.

"Science discovers these laws of power, motion, and transformation; industry applies them to the raw matter, which the earth yields us in abundance, but which becomes valuable

Science, industry, and art.

only by knowledge. Art teaches us the immutable laws of beauty and symmetry, and gives to our productions forms in accordance to them.

"Gentlemen—the Exhibition of 1851 is to give us a true test and a living picture of this point of development at which the whole of mankind has arrived in this great task, and a new starting-point from which all nations will be able to direct their further exertions. Effect of the Exhibition.

"I confidently hope that the first impression which the view of this vast collection will produce upon the spectator will be that of deep thankfulness to the Almighty for the blessings which he has bestowed upon us already here below; and the second, the conviction that they can only be realized in proportion to the help which we are prepared to render each other; therefore, only by peace, love, and ready assistance, not only between individuals, but between the nations of the earth."

The shock of delighted surprise which every one felt on first entering the great transept of Sir Joseph Paxton's building was a sensation as novel as it was deep. Its vastness was measured by the huge elms, two of the giants of the past, which rose far into the air with all their wealth of foliage, as free and unconfined as if there were nothing between them and the open sky. The plash of fountains, the luxuriance of tropical foliage, the play of colors from the choicest flowers, carried on into the

vistas of the nave by the rich dyes of carpets and stuffs from the costliest looms, were enough to fill eye and mind with a pleasure never to be forgotten, even without the vaguest sense of what lay beyond in the accumulated results of human ingenuity and cultivated art. One general effect of beauty had been produced by the infinitely varied work of the thousands who had separately co-operated toward this marvellous display and the structure in which it was set by its graceful lines and the free play of light which it admitted, seemed to fulfil every condition that could be desired for setting off the treasures thus brought together.

Beauty of he transept.

Beautiful at all times, the sight which the transept presented on the opening day, with its eager crowds raised row upon row, with the toilets of the women and the sprinkling of court costumes and uniforms, added to its permanent features was one which men grew eloquent in describing. As the eye rested on the rich and varied picture, the first thought that rose was one of gratitude to the Prince, as he stood there looking with his accustomed air of modest calm upon the splendid fulfilment of what two years before he had foreseen in thought.

Congratulations.

Lord John Russell, fresh from the scene, could not refrain from congratulating "the Queen on the triumphant success of the proceedings of this day. Everything went off

so well," he continued, "that it is needless to mention particulars; but the general conduct of the multitude assembled, the loyalty and the content which so generally appeared, were perhaps the most gratifying to a politician, while the wonders of art and industry will be the most celebrated among philosophers and men of science, as well as among manufacturers and the great mass of the working people." Besides the 25,000 people within the building itself, it was calculated that nearly 700,000 people were assembled on the route between it and Buckingham Palace, yet Sir George Grey was able to report next day to the Queen that there had not been one accident, one police case, due to this assemblage.

Number of people assembled.

MODERN INVENTIONS

ROBERT MACKENZIE

FIFTY years after James Watt gave his steam engine to the world, the wind was still the only motive power at sea, and men still depended upon the horse to convey themselves and their productions on land. The large dimensions which the manufactures of the country had now attained called for greater facility of transport. The canal-boat or the carrier's cart, moving at its leisurely two or three miles an hour, was inadequate to the requirements of a traffic which was growing with unexpected rapidity. The mail-coach, which at its best could traverse no more than two hundred miles in twenty-four hours, laid a debilitating restraint upon that free personal intercourse which is so essential in the conduct of business enterprises. More easy and speedy transport of men and commodities was again demanded, and the steam engine was the agency by which it was to be supplied.

Demand for greater facilities of transport.

The idea of the steamship is older than the idea of the steam-carriage. In the Sixteenth

Century, some forgotten genius made a feeble and fruitless attempt to apply steam to navigation. The imperfect mechanical skill of that early time was unable to give embodiment to so high a conception. A century later (1736), a patent was actually taken for a boat which was to be driven by steam. Toward the close of the century, a small steamer was sailing on a loch in Dumfriesshire at the speed of seven miles an hour. In 1807, a steamer, devised by Fulton, sailed up the Hudson from New York to Albany. After the crowning success of that voyage, steam navigation grew apace. A little later there were steamboats on the Clyde, and steamboats plying from Glasgow to London, and from Holyhead to Dublin. In 1838, the Atlantic was crossed by steamers. Then the final triumph of steam was assured, and the distant places of the earth were bound together by a new and closer tie than they had known before.

Boats driven by steam.

But still, while steam had become a moving power by river and sea, the land communications of all countries were maintained by the agency of the horse. From the earlier years of the century a steam carriage was the dream of mechanicians. Men of inventive genius, withdrawing themselves from the vain and bloody enterprise which then absorbed the national care, sought to find an adequate mechanical embodiment for the splendid conception of steam locomotion.

Land communication.

Many efforts, partially successful, were made, culminating, at length, in the final triumph of George Stephenson. The engine constructed by Stephenson for the Liverpool and Manchester Railway solved all doubts, silenced all objections, and inaugurated victoriously one of the grandest of industrial revolutions.

Growth of a disposition to travel.

Still more remarkable was the growth among the people of a disposition to travel. During the early portion of the century, men had scarcely the means to go from home beyond such trivial distance as they were able to accomplish on foot. Human society was composed of a multitude of little communities, dwelling apart, mutually ignorant, and therefore cherishing mutual antipathies. At once the causes of separation were withdrawn. Men of different towns, of different countries, were permitted freely to meet; to learn how little there was on either side to hate, how much to love; to establish ties of commercial relationship; to correct errors of opinion by friendly conflict of mind. The dormant love of travelling, by which nature protects men from the evils of isolation, wakened into life so vehement that, in 1875, the railways conveyed six hundred million passengers. Ancient prejudice melts away under the fuller knowledge gained by this extended acquaintance. Peculiarities of dialect, of manners, of belief, grow indistinct, and the unity

of the people becomes every year more perfect.

But a still more wonderful mastery over the secrets of nature was now to crown the patient researches of science, and yet more closely to unite the scattered families of men. It was found that the same mysterious and terrible power which flashes out of the heavens in storm was ready to traverse continent and sea with the speed of thought, bearing the messages which men desired to convey to each other. After many experiments, with constantly growing success, a line of telegraph was constructed on the Blackwall Railway and used for the transmission of railway signals. A little later the telegraph was taught to print the messages which it bore. The railway companies hastened to construct telegraphs beside their lines, at first for their own purposes only, but soon for those of the public also. The uses of this marvellous invention spread with rapidity, and soon extended across the sea. Dublin was connected with London; Dover with Calais. In a short time there followed the bold conception of stretching an electric pathway in the depths of the Atlantic, and uniting Europe with America. Ere long all civilized countries were thus connected. Across all lands and seas, the mysterious agency which man had subjugated obediently carried his commands.

Telegraphic communication.

In England, the State acquired, by pur-

State ownership.

chase, all telegraphs, and so extended the system, that soon every village in the kingdom enjoyed the inestimable privilege of instantaneous communication with every part of the inhabited globe.

This use of electricity possesses for us an interest especial and unique. It is the first human invention which is obviously final. In the race of improvement, steam may give place to some yet mightier power; gas may be superseded by some better method of lighting. No agency for conveying intelligence can ever excel that which is instantaneous. Here, for the first time, the human mind has reached the utmost limit of its progress.

The growth of the newspaper.

The union of distant localities by railway and telegraph quickened the interest which men felt in the concerns of each other, and awakened an incessant thirst for news. The weekly journals, which had hitherto satisfied the desires of the limited number who cared to read them, were now utterly insufficient. It became necessary that the daily history of the world should be compiled, in such hasty manner as might be possible, and printed every morning in newspapers. It was further indispensable that these newspapers should be cheap, and yet of high intelligence and literary excellence. The abolition of the tax which had hitherto fettered newspapers, and, in a few years more, the abolition of the tax on paper, made both of these things possible.

The price of nearly all newspapers was reduced to one penny,—a charge so low that even poor men could afford the indulgence of a daily paper. From these circumstances there resulted an increase of newspaper circulation which there are no means to compute, but which we know to be enormous. With increased revenues came a higher excellence of literary workmanship, and a consequent increase of influence over the minds of men. Every morning the same topics are presented to all minds, generally with moderation and intelligence, often with consummate skill. These topics furnish themes of thought and conversation for the day. Public opinion, which is now the governing power of the Empire, is thus formed, expressed, intensified, and guided to the discharge of the great function which it has assumed.

The steam printing press.

The enormous increase of the demand for newspapers rendered it indispensable that swifter methods of printing should be found. From the date of its invention down to the close of 1814, there had been almost no improvement on the printing press. A rude machine, yielding at its best no more than 150 copies per hour, was still universally employed. In 1814, the *Times* set up a press of German construction, worked by steam, and giving 1,100 copies per hour. Many years passed without further notable improvement. The urgent necessity arose for more rapid

printing. By various steps we have at length attained to machines which satisfy every requirement. A machine, driven by steam, is fed with huge rolls of paper, and gives out newspapers, cut and folded, at the rate of 25,000 copies per hour. A simple process of stereotyping makes it easy to supply from one set of types an indefinite number of such machines.

Methods of kindling.

It has always been of prime interest to men —savage or civilized—to evoke the heat which lies hid everywhere in nature, and kindle it into flame. Possibly the care which was taken to keep lights continually burning in certain heathen temples, and around which religious sanctions ultimately gathered, had its remote origin in the experienced difficulty of kindling light. But never was any widespread and urgent human want so imperfectly supplied. The earliest method of obtaining fire was by the friction of two pieces of dried wood. The next was the striking together of steel and flint. These two rude methods of obtaining the indispensable assistance of fire have served man during almost the whole of his career. Only so recently as about the time of the first Reform Bill has he been able to command the services of a more convenient agency.

The elements which compose this agency come from afar. Pine trees are brought from Canada or Norway, and cut by powerful and

delicate machinery into innumerable little pieces. Sulphur, cast up by volcanic action from the depths of the earth, is brought from Sicily. The bones of innumerable generations of wild cattle are collected on the vast plains of South America, and the chemistry of Europe extracts phosphorus from them. The little pieces of pine wood, dipped in phosphorus and sulphur, form matches, which burst into flame on the slightest friction. So perfect is the machinery employed, that a few workmen produce matches by millions in a day. So cheap, consequently, is the price, that the wholesale dealer buys eight hundred for one penny.

The sulphur match.

Long after the power-loom had entered upon its career, and cloth was woven by machinery, nothing better than hand labor had been found for sewing the cloth so produced into the forms required for human use. The poor needle-women of London still slaved during as many hours as they were able to keep awake, and received a daily sixpence or eightpence in requital of their toil. But at length an American mechanic invented a machine which could sew as much as six needle-women. The capabilities of this invention were promptly appreciated, and much attention was given to its improvement. In course of years there were twenty different machines, with an annual sale of millions. So highly were the powers of the sewing-machine devel-

The sewing-machine.

oped, that it could be driven at the rate of three thousand stitches per minute. The demand for sewing increased with a rapidity altogether unexpected. The starving needlewoman ceased to be one of the scandals of civilization. In her place came the machine-girl, with her moderate hours of labor and her comfortable wages.

Growth of mechanical skill.

Mechanical skill is a growth of the Nineteenth Century. A great mechanic states that in the beginning of the century the human hand performed all the work that was done, and performed it badly. James Watt was nearly baffled in getting the first model of his engine made. His cylinder could not be bored; it could only be rudely shaped out under the hammer, and it leaked so abominably that steam could scarcely be kept on the engine. The roughly-fitted machine emitted a "horrible noise" as it moved. But the great inventions of the day called imperiously for more perfect tools and higher excellence of mechanical execution. Nor did they call in vain. In due time there came a race of great mechanicians, whose task it was to create a suitable embodiment for the conceptions of the inventors. Bramah, of the patent lock, was the first to construct machines for working in iron. He could not, without such help, attain the requisite precision in making the parts of his lock. One of his pupils was Maudslay, who devised the fixed slide-rest.

First machines for working in iron.

Another was Clements, who made the first planing-machine. Nasmyth followed, with his steam-hammer. Whitworth raised incalculably the standard of mechanical precision by inventing a machine which detects variations of the one-millionth part of an inch. Innumerable contrivances followed for shortening processes of labor and obtaining accurate results. In half a century a vast, although comparatively unnoticed, revolution had been accomplished. Machinery had superseded the human hand. The workman was no longer the maker of any piece of work. He was merely the director of a machine, which produced its results with swiftness and precision infinitely superior to his own.

Labor-saving machines.

Down almost to the close of last century the British farmer cultivated the soil according to methods which had changed little for ages. The alternation of crops was unknown. No means had been found of restoring to the soil, by manuring, the elements of which the plant had deprived it. A field exhausted by frequent repetition of the same crop was suffered to lie waste for an indefinite period, till nature restored the expended capability. Drainage was practiced, but on a scale as limited, and in a form as rude, as those which were in use among the Romans. The water which soaked the ground caused the crops to ripen late, diminished their quantity and impaired their quality; it stunted the growth of cattle; it

Improvements in agriculture

diffused ague and intermittent fevers among men. The implements of the farmer were of the most primitive type. His plow was a rude structure, which only scratched the surface of the ground. The sower went forth to sow equipped as he had been in Palestine eighteen centuries ago. The ripened grain was cut by means of the ancient reaping-hook. The "thresher's weary flingin'-tree," so painfully celebrated by Burns, still formed the sole agency by which grain was separated from straw.

Improved drainage.

In 1823, Smith, of Deanston, taught a system of deep drainage, which was rapidly adopted. It yielded larger and earlier crops, and promoted the health both of man and beast. So well was the value of this improved drainage appreciated, that, in 1846, Parliament offered a loan of £4,000,000, to be expended on drains. Science was now enlisted in the service of the farmer. The nature of the plants which it was his business to rear was carefully studied, and the food which conduced best to their growth was ascertained. Agricultural societies collected and compared the experience of observant farmers, and published it for the general good. Machinery was applied to sowing and threshing. In 1852, a machine for reaping was offered to farmers, and accepted with prompt appreciation. Three years later a plow drawn by steam was in use. Steam tillage turned up

the soil to a greater depth than had been possible before, and was, therefore, more effective in the production of bountiful crops. It was not only better; it was, to an important extent, less expensive.

Steam tillage better and less expensive.

THE SECOND REPUBLIC AND THE SECOND EMPIRE IN FRANCE

(A.D. 1850—1852)

RICHARD LODGE

AFTER the suppression of the socialist rising of June, 1848, Cavaignac had carried on the government of France with almost perfect tranquillity. The Assembly proceeded with its work of drawing up a constitution for the Republic. The legislative power was intrusted to a single chamber of 750 members chosen by manhood suffrage.

The new constitution

All parties agreed to place the executive power in the hands of a president. The chief discussion arose on the question whether the president should be chosen by the Assembly or by the nation, but ultimately it was decided that he should be elected by universal suffrage for four years. The subordination of the president to the assembly was strongly asserted, but no means were suggested for enforcing it. It was a hazardous experiment to create two powers both having an independent origin, without any provision to avert a deadlock between them. But, for the moment, future dangers were forgotten and

men's minds were absorbed in the approaching election, which was fixed for December 10. The republican candidate was Cavaignac, who had given conclusive proofs of his honesty and of his ability to rule. His most formidable rival was Louis Napoleon, who had been elected in September by five departments. This time no opposition was made to his return to France, and he took his seat as deputy for the department of the Seine. Little was known of him but the futile conspiracies of Strasburg and Boulogne, but his name was a charm to conjure with. Thanks to Thiers and other writers, the memory of the first Napoleon had come to be almost worshipped in France. The peasants and soldiers believed that the rule of another Napoleon would secure their prosperity and their glory. The Orleanists also supported him, in the belief that they could use him as their instrument to effect the restoration of the July monarchy, but events proved that their confidence in his incapacity was ill-founded. From the first commencement of the voting, the result was a foregone conclusion. The recorded votes numbered nearly seven millions and a half. Of these, Louis Napoleon received 5,434,226, and Cavaignac only 1,434,107. On December 20, the President took the prescribed oath to observe the Constitution, and entered upon his official residence in the palace of the Elysée.

Louis Napoleon elected President.

Napoleon's enormous majority.

From the first, Louis Napoleon made it his aim to abolish the Republic and to revive the Empire. In complete contrast to Louis Philippe, who had relied upon the middle class, he sought support from the peasants, the army, and the priests. The expedition to Rome, under Oudinot, was intended as a bribe to the soldiers and the Church. The Constituent Assembly, having completed its work, was dissolved, and a new legislative assembly met in Paris on May 26, 1849. The elections gave evidence that the republicans had lost the confidence of the people. The opposition consisted of about 120 extreme democrats under the lead of Ledru-Rollin, and they revived the old revolutionary title of the "Mountain." The failure of Oudinot's first attack on Rome gave occasion for a rising in Paris in June. But the troops, under Changarnier, speedily put down disorder, and the movement of reaction was strengthened. Ledru-Rollin fled to London. Several of the republican journals were suppressed, and a new law was introduced to shackle the press. In October, the President dismissed his ministers, who were too constitutional for his tastes, and filled their places with more obscure but more docile instruments.

Rising in Paris.

To a certain extent, the President and the majority of the Assembly pursued common objects. Both were hostile to the Republic; but while the latter wished to restore a consti-

tutional monarchy, Louis Napoleon scarcely troubled to conceal his despotic inclinations. As long as they could work together, the progress of reaction was rapid. The *parti de l'ordre,* headed by Thiers, Broglie, Molé, and Montalembert, determined to avert the dangers threatened by universal suffrage. After a stormy debate, in which Thiers excited the fury of the "Mountain" by speaking of *"la vile multitude,"* they carried their proposal restricting the suffrage to citizens domiciled for three consecutive years in the same commune (May 30, 1850).

The suffrage is restricted.

As the period of his presidency was running out, and the constitution prohibited his reelection, it became necessary for Louis Napoleon to take active measures to secure his power. As his designs became more and more apparent, the Assembly began to show distrust and hostility. In January, 1851, General Changarnier was dismissed from the command of the Paris garrison and the National Guard, apparently because his regiments had not raised the cry of *Vive l'Empereur!* at the recent reviews. The Assembly declared its confidence in the general and its want of confidence in the ministry. This compelled the retirement of the ministers, but their successors were equally docile to the President, and equally unacceptable to the legislature. Petitions, got up by Napoleon's agents, poured in from the provinces to demand a revision of

Preparations for an Empire.

the Constitution, but the requisite majority of votes in the Assembly could not be obtained, and the project was dropped. Napoleon now determined to throw himself upon the support of the people. The Assembly had made itself very unpopular by the law of May 30, 1850, which had reduced the number of electors by three millions. The ministers proposed the repeal of the law, but the majority refused to give up their measure. Thus the President posed as the champion of democratic liberties against an oligarchical and reactionary Assembly. At last Louis Napoleon considered that his time had come, and fixed December 2, the anniversary of Austerlitz, as the date for the long-meditated *coup d'état.*

The *Coup d'Etat.*

The necessary preparations had been carefully made by Napoleon's agents, M. de Morny, Generals St. Arnaud and Magnan, and M. de Maupas, the prefect of police. On the night of the 1st, while suspicions were lulled by a grand party at the Elysée, the troops were distributed, and the necessary placards and proclamations were printed at the government press. The first blow was struck by the imprisonment of the most dangerous opponents. Generals Cavaignac, Changarnier, Lamoricière, Bedeau, together with Thiers, Victor Hugo, and Eugène Sue, were simultaneously seized in the middle of the night and dispersed to different prisons. In the morning, proclamations appeared in all

the streets announcing that the National Assembly was dissolved, that a new election was to take place on December 14, that universal suffrage was restored, and that Paris and the department of the Seine were in a state of siege. A new ministry was announced, in which Morny was Minister of the Interior; St. Arnaud, of War; M. Rouher, of Justice; and M. Fould, of Finance. In an "appeal to the people," Louis Napoleon proposed that the executive head of the government should be chosen for ten years, and that a Council of State, a Senate, and a Legislative Assembly should be created on the model of his uncle's Constitution of the 18th Brumaire. Meanwhile, about 250 deputies met in the Palais Bourbon, and were preparing a protest against the action of the President, when the hall was surrounded by troops, and they found themselves prisoners. By this act, the opposition was deprived of any common centre of union. Isolated revolts took place on the next two days, and the usual barricades were erected, but the troops gained an easy victory, though not without considerable bloodshed. By the evening of the 4th, the success of the *coup d'état* was secured. The *plébiscite* was commenced on December 20, and resulted in an enormous majority in favor of the new Constitution. The number of recorded votes was 7,439,216 to 646,757. The result of this vote was that Napoleon became President for ten

The new ministry.

The new constitution adopted.

years, and the chief constitutional checks upon his power were removed.

Like all restored princes, Louis Napoleon was an imitator. On December 2 he had closely copied the 18th Brumaire; his Constitution, which was formally issued on January 15, returned to the system of the first Napoleon; the uncle had been Consul, the nephew was President. To complete the external parallel, it was only necessary to get rid of the republican title by reviving the Empire; and it was certain that this would not long be delayed. The gilt eagles were restored to the standards; Napoleon's name was substituted for that of the Republic in the public prayers; the National Guard was reconstituted; the President took up his residence in the Tuileries. In the autumn, Louis Napoleon made a grand tour through the provinces, and was everywhere received with shouts of *Vive l'Empereur!* The same cry was raised by the troops on his return to the capital. The Senate was directed to discuss the matter, and it was decided once more to have recourse to a *plébiscite.* The proposal was that Louis Napoleon should be chosen hereditary Emperor of the French, with the right of settling the succession among the members of his family. It was carried without discussion by 7,824,129 to 253,145. So far universal suffrage had shown itself sufficiently favorable to despotism. On Decem-

Universal suffrage decides for the Empire.

ber 2, 1852, the new Emperor was proclaimed as Napoleon III.

The Empire was accepted in Europe without hostility, but without enthusiasm. The governments which had just recovered from the shock of 1848 welcomed it as a defeat of the Revolution. The Czar, the patron of legitimacy, was, as usual, the last to acknowledge the new government of France. In France itself the *coup d'état* had annihilated all opposition. The educated classes were hostile to despotism, but they were overawed by a system of espionage that made the utterance of heedless words a crime. A great revival of material prosperity followed the restoration of order, and the ardent pursuit of money-making proved an excellent salve for political discontent. The Constitution of January, 1852, was renewed with a few modifications, which increased the power of the Emperor, and further humiliated the *corps législatif*. To fuse the two branches of the House of Bourbon, the Comte de Chambord (Henry V.) adopted the Comte de Paris; but the royalists continued to be harmless, and the people resented the treatment of the French crown as the property of a family. The government adopted the economical fallacy that unproductive expenditure is beneficial to the laborers. Great part of Paris was pulled down to make room for more magnificent buildings. The Rue de Rivoli was extended

Revival of prosperity.

Improvements in Paris.

almost to the Faubourg St. Antoine, and thus was demolished the labyrinth of lanes which formerly surrounded the Hotel-de-Ville, and made it always liable to a surprise. The court was revived on the most magnificent scale, and the expenditure on pomp and festivities was enormously increased after the Emperor's marriage. The first duty of the founder of a new dynasty was to marry. Napoleon began by looking round for a princess; but he found the established dynasties so cool in response to his overtures that he determined to conciliate democratic prejudices by an alliance with a subject. His choice fell upon Donna Eugénie di Montijo, the widow of a Spanish general who had fought under Napoleon I., and the marriage was solemnized in January, 1853. The Empress Eugénie became the model for fashionable ladies, and her example did much to encourage that lavish extravagance which distinguished, and at last discredited, the second Empire.

Napoleon's choice of a wife.

Character and policy of Napoleon III.

France was once more subject to the absolute rule of an individual, and the character of that individual was one of the riddles of the age. Napoleon's personal courage was indisputable, but it was combined with invincible procrastination. No advice could turn him from his purpose, but no one could predict the moment when he would carry it out. He could not endure opposition, and he surrounded himself with clerks rather than with

ministers. Men like Guizot and Thiers refused to serve him, and he could never have tolerated their superiority. His early training had been that of a conspirator, and a conspirator he remained when he had attained the throne. There is little doubt that in his youth he had been mixed up in the plots of secret societies, and the associations then formed never ceased to hamper him. He was always afraid that any treachery to his old allies would lead to his assassination, and this fear had much to do with directing his policy toward Italy. He was a socialist in possession of absolute power, but he had to conciliate the established dynasties, which hated and dreaded socialism. Hence the apparent vacillation of his policy and the secrecy which always shrouded his designs. He was naturally indolent and averse to business; he would trust no one to do his work for him, and thus his administration was always defective. His ability was considerable, but it was the ability of an imitator. He had none of the original genius of his great uncle, and none of his power of choosing the best instruments. Nothing but the excessive dread of a new revolution could have kept him in power so long. The domestic history of France is almost a blank in his reign. To divert men's minds from the degradation and corruption of his rule, he adopted a vigorous foreign policy and became the firebrand of Europe. The

Secret of his vacillation.

French had been so accustomed to excitement for the last few years that they could not live without it. Napoleon fully comprehended this, and bribed his subjects with magnificent fêtes at home, and aggressive wars abroad.

[In 1852, Montenegro and Herzegovina rebel against Turkey. England recognizes the independence of the Transvaal, and annexes the valley of the Irawaddy from Burmah. In 1853, the Czar proposes to England to partition the Turkish Empire. On refusal he orders the Sultan to recognize him by treaty as the official protector of the Christians in the Turkish dominions. The Russians occupy Moldavia and Wallachia, and Turkey declares war. England and France come to Turkey's aid. The Russians destroy the Turkish fleet at Sinope. English and French fleets enter the Black Sea, and the Russian fleet retires to Sebastopol. The Greeks are repulsed in an attempt to seize Thessaly and Epirus. The first railway in India is opened. Commodore Perry forces the Shôgun to open Japan to American trade.]

England recognizes the Transvaal.

Perry opens Japan.

THE OPENING OF JAPAN

(A.D. 1853—1854)

FRANCIS OTTIWELL ADAMS

DURING the long period of peace which succeeded the establishment of the Tokugawa dynasty of shôguns, the intrigues against it on the part of jealous and ambitious daimios (and such there doubtless were from time to time, especially in connection with the Court at Kiôto) had so far failed, and the shôgun of the day, or his officials, virtually ruled the empire from Yedo.

Failure of intrigues against the Tokugawa shôguns.

But the advent of foreigners changed the complexion of affairs, and gave an additional impetus to the machinations of the daimios, who chafed under the usurpation of the greatest among them, and of those members of the Court party who were their allies. Indeed, when the foreigner appeared on the scene, everything was already ripe for a revolution in the old style, and for the substitution of a fresh dynasty for the worn-out Tokugawa dynasty. And it is now quite evident that the imperfect government of the shôgun was not adapted to the new order of things which suc-

ceeded the signing of treaties with foreign nations. It is essential for the reader to understand that, from the moment those treaties came into force, the fall of the shôgunate became a mere question of time, and that nothing could have saved it. As far as the establishment of commercial and friendly relations of a permanent nature with Europe and the United States was concerned, the sooner it was abolished the better. It was not the *supreme* power, and yet in its dealings with other powers and their representatives it pretended to be so. Hence, as will be seen, perpetual subterfuges and a daily resort to small tricks for the purpose of keeping up the delusion, and of preventing foreigners from becoming aware of this important fact (which, however, could not long be concealed) that he, to whom the treaties and the diplomatic agents had accorded the title of "Majesty," had no right to be so styled, and was not the Emperor of Japan.

Signature of treaties a death-blow to the shogunate.

Although this fact is now patent to every one, many foreigners clung with curious obstinacy, even up to a late date, to the false idea that the "Tycoon" was the *temporal* sovereign of the country, and that he would soon "return to power," as they were wont to express what they would have found difficult to explain or define.

The shogun or "Tycoon" not the temporal sovereign.

We now come to the first years of foreign intercourse. And in considering them we shall

derive much assistance from the Blue Books presented to Parliament, and from some native productions, especially one called *Genji yumé monogatari* (the story of the dream of *Genji*), which gives a narration of various occurrences from 1850 to 1864, and attributes the origin of the fight in Kioto, which occurred in the latter year, to the circumstances of the arrival of foreigners in Japan after the long period of non-intercourse.

The different attempts of foreigners of various nations to break through the isolation in which Japan had persisted since the expulsion of the Christians are recorded in the last chapters of Hildreth's *Japan as it Was and Is.* None but Dutch were allowed a footing in the country, and they were still confined to the small island of Déshima, off Nagasaki. The Government of the United States, however, determined to make one more attempt to establish intercourse with the Japanese, and as the humoring policy of the naval officers who had previously visited the coast had not proved successful, it was decided to despatch an envoy with a naval force sufficient to ensure him a respectful hearing. Of this expedition Commodore Matthew G. Perry was selected as head, and he finally set sail toward the end of 1852, furnished with a letter from President Fillmore to the Emperor of Japan, and with instructions to conclude a treaty. The objects of the treaty were declared in a letter

The United States' expedition under Commodore Perry.

dated November 2, 1852, from the State Department to the Secretary of the Navy, as follows:

Objects of the treaty desired.

"1. To effect some permanent arrangement for the protection of American seamen and property wrecked on those islands, or driven into their ports by stress of weather.

"2. The permission of American vessels to enter one or more of their ports, in order to obtain supplies of provisions—water, fuel, etc. —or, in case of disasters, to refit so as to enable them to prosecute their voyage. It is very desirable to have permission to establish a depôt for coal, if not on one of the principal islands, at least on some small uninhabited one, of which it is said there are several in their vicinity.

"3. The permission to our vessels to enter one or more of their ports, for the purpose of disposing of their cargoes by sale or barter."

Arrival off Uraga in July, 1853, with four ships of war

Commodore Perry proceeded by way of Madeira and the Cape of Good Hope to Hong Kong and Shanghai, and ultimately in July, 1853, arrived off Uraga, at the entrance of the passage leading to Yokohama and Yedo. His squadron consisted of the steam frigates *Susquehanna* and *Mississippi,* and the sloops of war *Plymouth* and *Saratoga.* The further accounts of his narrative, as taken from the official documents printed by order of the United States Senate, will be found in Mr. Hildreth's

Perry's squadron.

book. I will here follow the *Genji yumé monogatari.*

Account from the *Genji yume monogatari*

It was in the summer of 1853 that, as the author states, an individual named Perry, who called himself the envoy of the United States of America, suddenly arrived at Uraga in the province of Sagami with four ships of war, declaring that he brought a letter from his country to Japan, and that he wished to deliver it to the sovereign. The governor of the place, Toda Idzu no kami, much alarmed by this extraordinary event, hastened to the spot to inform himself of its meaning. The envoy stated, in reply to questions, that he desired to see a chief minister, in order to explain the object of his visit, and to hand over to him the letter with which he was charged. The governor then despatched a messenger on horseback with all haste to carry this information to the castle of Yedo, where a great scene of confusion ensued on his arrival. Fresh messengers followed, and the Shôgun Iyéyoshi, on receiving them, was exceedingly troubled, and summoned all the officials to a council. At first the affair seemed so sudden and so formidable that they were too alarmed to open their mouths, but in the end orders were issued to the great clans to keep strict watch at various points on the shore, as it was possible that the "barbarian" vessels might proceed to commit acts of violence. A learned Chinese scholar was sent to Uraga, had an inter-

Confusion at Yedo.

view with the American envoy and returned with the letter, which expressed the desire of the United States to establish friendship and intercourse with Japan; and said, according to this account, that if they met with a refusal, they should commence hostilities.

Conflicting opinions.

Thereupon the shôgun was greatly distressed and again summoned a council. He also asked the opinion of the daimios. "The assembled officials were exceedingly disturbed, and nearly broke their hearts over consultations which lasted all day and all night. The nobles and retired nobles in Yedo were informed that they were at liberty to state any ideas they might have on the subject, and although they all gave their opinions, the diversity of propositions was so great, that no decision was arrived at. The military class had during a long peace neglected military arts; they had given themselves up to pleasure and luxury, and there were very few who had put on armor for many years. So that they were greatly alarmed at the prospect that war might break out at a moment's notice, and began to run hither and thither in search of arms. The city of Yedo and the surrounding villages were in a great tumult; in anticipation of the war which seemed imminent, the people carried off their valuables and furniture in all directions, in order to conceal them in the houses of friends living further off, and there was such a state of confusion among all

classes that the governors of the city were compelled to issue a notification to the people, and this in the end had the effect of quieting the general anxiety. But in the castle never was a decision further from being arrived at, and while time was being thus idly wasted, the envoy was constantly demanding an answer. So at last they decided that it would be best to arrange the affair quietly, to give the foreigners the articles they wanted, and to put off sending an answer to the letter; to tell the envoy that in an affair of such importance to the State no decision could be arrived at without mature consideration, and that he had better go away; that in a short time he should get a definite answer. The envoy agreed, and, after sending a message to say that he should return in the following spring for his answer, set sail from Uraga with his four ships.

General alarm.

It is agreed to temporize.

The Shôgun Iyéyoshi had been ill since the commencement of the summer, and had been rendered very anxious about this sudden and pressing affair of the outer barbarians. Perhaps it was this cause which now made his illness so severe that he died on the 22d day of the seventh month. The assembled retainers entirely lost their heads, and both high and low were plunged into the deepest grief. He was buried in Zôjôji, and received the title of Shintoku-in.

Death of the Shogun Iyeyoshi.

The death of the Shôgun at this particular crisis was at least suspicious. He was suc-

ceeded by his son, Iyésada, thirteenth of the Tokugawa line.

Early in 1854 Commodore Perry returned, and the question of acceding to his demands was again hotly debated. Eventually the Treaty was concluded on the 31st of March, 1854. Three copies, signed by the Japanese Commissioners, were delivered to Commodore Perry, and he gave to them in exchange three copies in English, signed by himself, with Dutch and Chinese translations. The ports of Shimoda, in the province of Idzu, and of Hakodaté, in the island of Yezo, were opened for the reception of American ships, to be supplied with such articles as wood, water, provisions, and coal. There were stipulations with respect to the treatment of shipwrecked men; there was an article giving facilities for trading, a favored nations' clause, and an article providing for the appointment by the Government of the United States of consuls or agents to reside in Shimoda, provided that either of the two governments deemed such arrangements necessary.

Provisions of the Treaty.

In this year, Admiral Sir James Stirling arrived with a squadron, and concluded a convention with Japan, by which Nagasaki and Hakodaté were to be opened to British ships for repairs, supplies, etc.

Admiral Stirling's convention.

THE CRIMEAN WAR

(A.D. 1854—1856)

JUSTIN McCARTHY

ENGLAND, then, and France entered the war as allies. Lord Raglan, formerly Lord Fitzroy Somerset, an old pupil of the Great Duke in the Peninsular War, and who had lost his right arm serving under Wellington at Waterloo, was appointed to command the English forces. Marshal St. Arnaud, a bold, brilliant soldier of fortune, was intrusted by the Emperor of the French with the leadership of the soldiers of France. The allied forces went out to the East and assembled at Varna, on the Black Sea shore, from which they were to make their descent on the Crimea. The invasion of the Crimea, however, was not welcomed by the English or the French commander. It was undertaken by Lord Raglan out of deference to the recommendations of the Government; and by Marshal St. Arnaud out of deference to the Emperor of the French. The allied forces were, therefore, conveyed to the southwestern shore of the Crimea, and effected a landing

England and France allies.

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in Kalamita Bay, a short distance north of the point at which the river Alma runs into the sea. Sebastopol itself lies about thirty miles to the south; and then more southward still, divided by the bulk of a jutting promontory from Sebastopol, is the harbor of Balaklava. The disembarkment began on the morning of September 14, 1854, and was effected without any opposition from the Russians. On September 19, the allies marched out of their encampments and reached the Alma about noon on September 20. They found that they had to cross the river in the face of the Russian batteries armed with heavy guns on the highest points of the hills or bluffs, of scattered artillery, and of dense masses of infantry which covered the hills. The Russians were under the command of Prince Mentschikoff. The soldiers of the Czar fought stoutly and stubbornly as they have always done; but they could not stand up against the blended vehemence and obstinacy of the English and French. The river was crossed, the opposite heights were mounted, Prince Mentschikoff's great redoubt was carried, the Russians were driven from the field, the allies occupied their ground; the victory was to the Western Powers. The first field was fought, and we had won.

Landing of the forces.

Battle of the Alma.

The Russians ought to have been pursued. But there was no pursuit. Lord Raglan was eager to follow up the victory; but the French

Success not followed up

had as yet hardly any cavalry, and Marshal St. Arnaud would not agree to any further enterprise that day. Lord Raglan believed that he ought not to persist; and nothing was done. Except for the bravery of those who fought, the battle was not much to boast of. But it was the first great battle which for nearly forty years our soldiers had fought with a civilized enemy. The military authorities and the country were well disposed to make the most of it. The gallant medley on the banks of the Alma, and the fruitless interval of inaction that followed it, were told of as if the men were speaking of some battle of the gods. Very soon, however, a different note came to be sounded. The campaign had been opened under conditions differing from those of most campaigns that went before it. Science had added many new discoveries to the art of war. Literature had added one remarkable contribution of her own to the conditions amid which campaigns were to be carried on. She added the "special correspondent." Therefore, while the fervor of delight in the courage and success of our army was still fresh in the minds of the public at home, while every music-hall was ringing with the cheap rewards of valor in the shape of popular glorifications of our commanders and our soldiers, the readers of the *Times* began to learn that things were faring badly indeed with the conquering army of

Inaction.

The "Special Correspondent."

the Alma. The hospitals were in a wretchedly disorganized condition. Stores of medicines and strengthening food were decaying in places where no one wanted them or could well get at them, while men were dying in hundreds among our tents in the Crimea for lack of them. The system of clothing, of transport, of feeding, of nursing—everything had broken down. The special correspondent of the *Times* and other correspondents continued to din these things into the ears of the public at home. Exultation began to give way to a feeling of dismay. The patriotic anger against the Russians was changed for a mood of deep indignation against our own authorities and our own war administration. It soon became apparent to every one that the whole campaign had been planned on the assumption of our military authorities here at home—we do not speak of the commanders in the field—that Sebastopol was to fall like another Jericho, at the sound of the war-trumpets' blast.

Incompetent war administration.

Our commanders in the field were, on the contrary, rather disposed to overrate than to underrate the strength of the Russians. It is very likely that if a sudden dash had been made at Sebastopol by land and sea, it might have been taken almost at the very opening of the war. But the delay gave the Russians full warning; and they did not neglect it. On the third day after the battle of the Alma, the

Russians sank seven vessels of their Black Sea fleet at the entrance of the harbor of Sebastopol, and the entrance of the harbor was barred as by sunken rocks against any approach of an enemy's ship. There was an end to every dream of a sudden capture of Sebastopol. The allied armies moved again from their positions on the Alma to Balaklava, which lies south of the city, on the other side of a promontory, and which has a port which might enable them to secure a constant means of communication between the armies and the fleets. Sebastopol was but a few miles off, and preparations were at once made for an attack on it by land and sea. On October 17 the attack began. It was practically a failure. The fleet could not get near enough to the sea-forts of Sebastopol to make their broadsides of any real effect because of the shallow water and the sunken ships; and, although the attack from the land was vigorous and was fiercely kept up, yet it could not carry its object.

Russian defence measures.

Attack on Sebastopol a failure.

The Russians attacked the allies fiercely on October 25, in the hope of obtaining possession of Balaklava. The attempt was bold and brilliant; but it was splendidly repulsed. Never did a day of battle do more credit to English courage, or less, perhaps, to English generalship. The cavalry particularly distinguished themselves. It was, in great measure, on our side a cavalry action. It will be

Battle of Balaklava.

"Charge of the Light Brigade."

memorable in all English history as the battle in which occurred the famous charge of the Light Brigade. Owing to some fatal misconception of the meaning of an order from the Commander-in-Chief, the Light Brigade, 607 men in all, charged what has been rightly described as "the Russian army in position." Of the 607 men, 198 came back. Long, painful, and hopeless were the disputes about this fatal order. The controversy can never be wholly settled. The officer who bore the order was one of the first who fell in the onset. All Europe, all the world, rang with wonder and admiration of the futile and splendid charge. The Poet Laureate sang of it in spirited verses. Perhaps its best epitaph was contained in the celebrated comment ascribed to the French General Bosquet, and which has since become proverbial, and been quoted until men are wellnigh tired of it—"It was magnificent, but it was not war."

Next day, the enemy made another vigorous attack on a much larger scale, moving out of Sebastopol itself, and were again repulsed. On November 5, the Russians made another grand attack on the allies, chiefly on the British, and were once more splendidly repulsed.

Battle of Inkerman.

The plateau of Inkerman was the principal scene of the struggle. It was occupied by the Guards and a few British regiments, on whom fell, until General Bosquet with his French was able to come to their assistance, the

task of resisting a Russian army. This was the severest and the fiercest engagement of the campaign. Inkerman was described at the time as the soldiers' battle. Strategy, it was said everywhere, there was none. The attack was made under cover of a dark and drizzling mist. The battle was fought for a while almost absolutely in the dark. There was hardly any attempt to direct the allies by any principles of scientific warfare. The soldiers fought stubbornly a series of hand-to-hand fights, and we are entitled to say that the better men won in the end.

Devastation and suffering.

The winter was gloomy at home as well as abroad. The news constantly arriving from the Crimea told only of devastation caused by foes far more formidable than the Russians—sickness, bad weather, bad management. The Black Sea was swept and scourged by terrible storms. The destruction of transport-ships laden with winter stores for our men was of incalculable injury to the army. Clothing, blanketing, provisions, hospital necessaries of all kinds, were destroyed in vast quantities. The loss of life among the crews of the vessels was immense. A storm was nearly as disastrous in this way as a battle. On shore the sufferings of the army were unspeakable.

Severities of the Russian winter.

The tents were torn from their pegs and blown away. The officers and men were exposed to the bitter cold and the fierce stormy blasts. Our soldiers had, for the most part, little ex-

perience or even idea of such cold as they had to encounter this gloomy winter. The intensity of the cold was so great that no one might dare to touch any metal substance in the open air with his bare hand under the penalty of leaving the skin behind him. The hospitals for the sick and wounded at Scutari were in a wretchedly disorganized condition. They were, for the most part, in an absolutely chaotic condition as regards arrangement and supply. In some instances medical stores were left to decay at Varna, or were found lying useless in the holds of vessels in Balaklava Bay, which were needed for the wounded at Scutari. The medical officers were able and zealous men; the stores were provided and paid for so far as our government was concerned; but the stores were not brought to the medical men. These had their hands all but idle, their eyes and souls tormented by the sight of sufferings which they were unable to relieve for want of the commonest appliances of the hospital. The most extraordinary instances of blunder and confusion were constantly coming to light. Great consignments of boots arrived, and were found to be all for the left foot. Mules for the conveyance of stores were contracted for and delivered, but delivered so that they came into the hands of the Russians and not of us. Shameful frauds were perpetrated, in the instance of some of the contracts for preserved

Lack of medical stores.

Blunders and confusion.

meat. The evils of the hospital disorganization were happily made a means of bringing about a new system of attending to the sick and wounded in war, which has already created something like a revolution in the manner of treating the victims of battle. Mr. Sidney Herbert, horrified at the way in which things were managed in Scutari and the Crimea, applied to a distinguished woman, who had long taken a deep interest in hospital reform, to superintend personally the nursing of the soldiers. Miss Florence Nightingale was the daughter of a wealthy English country gentleman. She had chosen not to pass her life in fashionable and æsthetic inactivity; and had from a very early period turned her attention to sanitary questions. She had studied nursing as a science and a system; had made herself acquainted with the working of various Continental institutions; and about the time when the war broke out she was actually engaged in reorganizing the Sick Governesses' Institution in Harley Street, London. To her Mr. Sidney Herbert turned. He offered her, if she would accept the task he proposed, plenary authority over all the nurses, and an unlimited power of drawing on the government for whatever she might think necessary to the success of her undertaking. Miss Nightingale accepted the task, and went out to Scutari accompanied by some women of rank like her own, and a trained staff of nurses. They

Florence Nightingale.

Her fine work.

speedily reduced chaos into order; and from the time of their landing in Scutari there was at least one department of the business of war which was never again a subject of complaint. The spirit of the chivalric days had been restored under better auspices for its abiding influence. Sidney Herbert, in his letter to Miss Nightingale, has said that her example, if she accepted the task he proposed, would "multiply the good to all time." These words proved to have no exaggeration in them. We have never seen a war since in which women of education and of genuine devotion have not given themselves up to the task of caring for the wounded. The Geneva Convention and the bearing of the Red Cross are among the results of Florence Nightingale's work in the Crimea.

Miseries of the siege.

But the siege of Sebastopol was meanwhile dragging heavily along; and sometimes it was not quite certain which ought to be called the besieged, the Russians in the city or the allies encamped in sight of it. During some months the armies did little or nothing. The commissariat system and the land transport system had broken down. The armies were miserably weakened by sickness. Cholera was ever and anon raging anew among our men. Horses and mules were dying of cold and starvation. The roads were only deep, irregular ruts filled with mud; the camp was a marsh; the tents stood often in pools of

water; the men had sometimes no beds but straw dripping wet; and hardly any bed coverings. Our unfortunate Turkish allies were in a far more wretched plight than even we ourselves. The authorities who ought to have looked after them were impervious to the criticisms of special correspondents and unassailable by Parliamentary votes of censure.

Meanwhile new negotiations of peace, set on foot under the influence of Austria, had been begun at Vienna, and Lord John Russell had been sent there to represent the interests of England. We had got a new ally in the little kingdom of Sardinia, whose government was then under the control of one of the master-spirits of modern politics, Count Cavour. Sardinia went into war in order that she might have a *locus standi* in the councils of Europe from which to set forth her grievances against Austria. The policy was singularly successful, and entirely justified the expectations of Cavour. The Crimean War laid the foundations of the kingdom of Italy. But there was another event of a very different nature, the effect of which seemed at first likely to be all in favor of peace. On March 2, 1855, the Emperor Nicholas of Russia died of pulmonary apoplexy, after an attack of influenza. A cartoon appeared in *Punch,* which was called "General Fevrier turned Traitor." The Emperor Nicholas had boasted that Russia had two generals on whom she could always

Sardinia enters the war.

Death of the Emperor Nicholas.

rely, General Janvier and General Fevrier; and now the English artist represented General February, a skeleton in Russian uniform, turning traitor and laying his bony, ice-cold hand on the heart of the sovereign and betraying him to the tomb. But indeed it was not General February alone who doomed Nicholas to death. The Czar died of broken hopes; of the recklessness that comes of defeat and despair. He took no precautions against cold and exposure; he treated with a magnanimous disdain the remonstrances of his physicians and his friends. The news of the sudden death of the Emperor created a profound sensation in England. At first there was, as we have said, a common impression that Nicholas's son and successor, Alexander II., would be more anxious to make peace than his father had been. But this hope was soon gone. The new Czar could not venture to show himself to his people in a less patriotic light than his predecessor. The prospects of the allies were at the time remarkably gloomy. There must have seemed to the new Russian Emperor considerable ground for the hope that disease, and cold, and bad management would do more harm to the army of England at least than any Russian general. The Conference at Venice proved a failure.

Gloomy prospects of the allies.

The operations in the Crimea were renewed with some vigor. The English army lost by the death of its brave and manly Com-

mander-in-Chief, Lord Raglan. He was succeeded by General Simpson, whose administration during the short time that he held the command was at least well qualified to keep Lord Raglan's memory green and to prevent the regret for his death from losing any of its keenness. The French army had lost its first commander long before—the versatile, reckless, brilliant soldier of fortune, St. Arnaud. After St. Arnaud's death the command was transferred for a while to General Canrobert, who resigned in favor of General Pélissier. The Sardinian contingent had arrived, and had given admirable proof of its courage and discipline. On August 16, 1855, the Russians, under General Liprandi, made an unsuccessful effort to raise the siege of Sebastopol by an attack on the allied forces. The Sardinian contingent bore themselves with stubborn bravery in the resistance, and all Northern Italy was thrown into wild delight by the news that the flag of Piedmont had been carried to victory over the troops of one great European Power, and side by side with those of two others. It was the first great illustration of Cavour's habitual policy of blended audacity and cool, far-seeing judgment. The siege had been progressing for some time with considerable activity. The Malakoff tower and the Mamelon battery in front of it became the scenes and objects of constant struggle. The Russians made des-

Death of Lord Raglan.

Gallantry of the Sardinians.

Assault of the Redan and Malakoff batteries.

perate night sorties again and again, and were always repulsed. On June 7, the English assaulted the quarries in front of the Redan, and the French attacked the Mamelon. The attack on both sides was successful; but it was followed on the 18th of the same month by a desperate and wholly unsuccessful attack on the Redan and Malakoff batteries. On September 5, the allies made an attack almost simultaneously upon the Malakoff and the Redan. The French got possession of the Malakoff, and the English then at once advanced upon the Redan; but the French were near the Malakoff; the English were very far away from the Redan. The distance our soldiers had to traverse left them almost helplessly exposed to the Russian fire. They stormed the parapets of the Redan despite all the difficulties of their attack; but they were not able to hold the place. The attacking party were far too small in numbers; reinforcements did not come in time; the English held their own for an hour against odds that might have seemed overwhelming; but it was simply impossible for them to establish themselves in the Redan, and the remnant of them that could withdraw had to retreat to the trenches. It was only the old story of the war. Superb courage and skill of the officers and men; outrageously bad generalship. The attack might have been renewed that day, but the English Commander-in-Chief, General Simpson, resolved not to

Retreat of the British.

make another attempt till the next morning. Before the morrow came there was nothing to attack. The Russians withdrew during the night from the south side of Sebastopol. A bridge of boats had been constructed across the bay to connect the north and the south sides of the city, and across this bridge Prince Gortschakoff quietly withdrew his troops. The Russian general felt that it would be impossible for him to hold the city much longer, and that to remain there was only useless waste of life. But, as he said in his own despatch, "It is not Sebastopol which we have left to them, but the burning ruins of the town, which we ourselves set fire to, having maintained the honor of the defence in such a manner that our great-grandchildren may recall with pride the remembrance of it and send it on to all posterity." It was some time before the allies could venture to enter the abandoned city. The arsenals and powder-magazines were exploding, the flames were bursting out of every public building and every private house. The Russians had made of Sebastopol another Moscow.

The Russians fire Sebastopol.

With the close of that long siege, which had lasted nearly a year, the war may be said to have ended. The brilliant episode of Kars, its splendid defence and its final surrender, was brought to its conclusion, indeed, after the fall of Sebastopol; but, although it naturally attracted a peculiar attention in this country, it

Fall of Kars.

could have no effect on the actual fortunes of such a war. Kars was defended by General Fenwick Williams, an English officer, who held the place against overwhelming Russian forces, and against an enemy far more appalling—starvation itself. He had to surrender at last to famine; but the very articles of surrender to which the conqueror consented became the trophy of Williams and his men. The garrison were allowed to leave the place with all the honors of war; and, "as a testimony to the valorous resistance made by the garrison of Kars, the officers of all ranks are to keep their swords." The war was virtually over. Austria had been exerting herself throughout its progress in the interests of peace, and after the fall of Sebastopol she made a new effort with greater success. France and Russia were indeed now anxious to be cut out of the struggle almost on any terms. If England had held out, it is highly probable that she would have had to do so alone. For this indeed Lord Palmerston was fully prepared as a last resource, sooner than submit to terms which he considered unsatisfactory.

End of the war.

Congress of Paris.

The Congress of Paris opened on February 26, 1856, and on March 30 the treaty of peace was signed by the plenipotentiaries of the Great Powers. Prussia had been admitted to the Congress, which therefore represented England, France, Russia, Austria, Prussia, Turkey, and Sardinia.

By the treaty Kars was restored to the Sultan, and Sebastopol and all other places taken by the allies were given back to Russia. The Great Powers engaged to respect the independence and territorial integrity of Turkey. The Sultan issued a firman for ameliorating the condition of his Christian subjects, and no right of interference, it was distinctly specified, was given to the other powers by this concession on the Sultan's part. The Black Sea was neutralized; its waters and its ports were thrown open to the mercantile marine of every nation, and formally and in perpetuity interdicted to the flag of war either of the Powers possessing its coast or of any other Power, with the exception of the right of each of the Powers to have the same number of small armed vessels in the Black Sea to act as a sort of maritime police and to protect the coasts. The Sultan and the Emperor engaged to establish and maintain no military or maritime arsenals in that sea. The navigation of the Danube was thrown open. Moldavia and Wallachia, continuing under the suzerainty of the Sultan, were to enjoy all the privileges and immunities they already possessed under the guarantee of the contracting Powers, but with no separate right of intervention in their affairs. Out of Moldavia and Wallachia united, after various internal changes, there subsequently grew the kingdom of Roumania. The existing position of Servia was

Terms of the settlement.

secured by the treaty. During time of peace the Sultan engaged to admit no foreign ships of war into the Bosphorus or the Dardanelles.

To guarantee Turkey from the enemy they most feared, a tripartite treaty was afterward agreed to between England, France, and Austria. This document bears date in Paris April 15, 1856; by it the contracting parties guaranteed jointly and severally the independence and integrity of the Ottoman Empire, and declared that any infraction of the general treaty of March 30 would be considered by them as *casus belli*. The Congress of Paris was remarkable for the fact that the plenipotentiaries before separating came to an agreement on the rules generally of maritime war by which privateering was abolished. It was agreed, however, that the rules adopted at the Congress of Paris would only be binding on those States that had acceded or should accede to them. The United States raised some difficulty about renouncing the right of privateering, and the declarations of the Congress were therefore made without America's assenting to them. At the instigation of Count Cavour the condition of Italy was brought before the Congress; and there can be no doubt that out of the Congress and the part that Sardinia assumed as representative of Italian nationality came the succession of events which ended in the establishment of a King of Italy in the palace of the Quirinal. The adjustment of the condi-

Turkey's integrity safeguarded.

Italy's condition brought before the Congress.

tion of the Danubian principalities, too, engaged much attention and discussion, and a highly ingenious arrangement was devised for the purpose of keeping those provinces from actual union, so that they might be coherent enough to act as a rampart against Russia, without being so coherent as to cause Austria any alarm for her own somewhat disjointed, not to say distracted, political system. All these artificial and complex arrangements presently fell to pieces, and the principalities became in course of no very long time a united independent State under a hereditary Prince. But for the hour it was hoped that the independence of Turkey and the restriction of Russia, the security of the Christian provinces, the neutrality of the Black Sea, and the closing of the Straits against war vessels, had been bought by the war.

The Danubian principalities.

England lost some twenty-four thousand men in the war, of whom hardly a sixth fell in battle or died of wounds. Cholera and other diseases gave grim account of the rest. Forty-one millions of money were added by the campaign to the National Debt.

England's losses of men and money.

THE BATTLE OF INKERMAN

(A.D. 1854)

A. W. KINGLAKE

THE outlines of the fight—like those of Mount Inkerman itself—are indented and jagged, but well marked.

First Period.—Coming up from the West under Soimonoff, and from the East under Panloff, 40,000 assailants moved forward under so thick a cover of darkness and mist that, by no greater effort than that of driving in an outlying picket, General Soimonoff was able to plant on Shell Hill a powerful artillery supported by heavy bodies of foot. From the commanding position thus rapidly seized, and now guarded by sixteen battalions, twenty other battalions, with a strength of 15,000 men, were thrown forward to attack General Pennefather along his whole front, while a force called the "Under-road column" moved up unobstructed by the bed of the Careenage Ravine, in order to turn his left flank. On his right for some time the enemy triumphed; he seized three of our guns; he drove from the field a bewildered body of nearly 4,000

Outline of the fight. 5:45 A.M. to 7:30 A.M.

foot; and, meanwhile, with the Under-road column he successfully turned the position, coming up by the Well-way at last to within a stone's throw of Pennefather's tents.

Then, however, all changed; and the mist, which had thus far protected the enemy, began to favor our people, by taking from the many their power of rightly wielding big numbers, from the few their sense of weakness. It resulted that (with the aid of some batteries) 3,300 of our infantry, under Pennefather and Buller, found means to defeat with great slaughter, and even to expunge from the battlefield the whole of the 15,000 men who had assaulted their front, and, moreover, proved able to rout the Under-road column at a moment when it was driving into the very camp of the 2d Division.

Tide turns against the Russians.

The number of Russian officers struck down was appallingly great; and General Soimonoff himself fell mortally wounded.

Second Period.—General Dannenberg, now coming up, assumed the command, and began to act with fresh troops. By attacking not only the front of the English position, but also the valueless ledge surmounted by the Sandbag Battery, he challenged his adversaries to meet him in two separate combats; and our soldiery, believing—though wrongly—that the dismantled work must be a part of the English defences, fastened on it with so eager a hold, that Lord Raglan—in the midst of close

General Dannenberg takes command. 7:30 A.M. to 8:30 A.M.

fighting—could not even attempt to withdraw them. The mistake long continued to work its baneful effects; and the combatant part of the English force (now augmented by the accession of fresh troops) divided itself into two unconnected assemblages, with a dangerous gap between them. In one of the two simultaneous fights thus provoked—that is, the one in front of Home Ridge—General Pennefather, with very scant means, proved able to hurl back every onset; while in the fight for the Sandbag Battery, after long and obstinate struggles, our people drove down the whole multitude which had swarmed on the ledge of the Kitspur; but then, haplessly, they went on to do more, achieving what I have called a "false victory" over the left wing of the Russian army. Excepting only a few score of men with difficulty restrained from pursuit, they all of them poured down the steeps, attacking or chasing the enemy, became dispersed in the copsewood, and in this way annulled for a time their power of rendering fresh services.

Mistakes of the English soldiery.

Russian troops, it was suddenly found, had moved up unopposed through the Gap, and the few score of English still remaining on the heights then seemed to be entirely cut off, yet proved able to fight their way home.

For some time, the two French battalions which had come up would take no part in the fight; but one of them—the 6th of the Line—

Backwardness of the French.

moved forward at length with good will against the flank of a Russian force then advancing along the Fore Ridge. The enemy thus threatened fell back, and the French battalion victoriously made good its advance to ground on the west of the Kitspur.

Thus the efforts the enemy made in the course of this Second Period resulted, after all, in discomfiture; but by the continued necessity for guarding our left, by Pennefather's still ardent propensity to fight out in front of his heights, and now finally by the losses and the dispersions sustained on the Kitspur, the number of English foot-soldiers that could be mustered for the immediate defence of Home Ridge was brought down to diminutive proportions.

Third Period.—That immediate defence of their position, for which our people were thus ill provided, became the very problem in hand. The enemy, concentrating his efforts upon one settled purpose, delivered a weighty attack upon the Home Ridge, now almost denuded of English infantry, but guarded by the 7th Léger—a battalion 900 strong. His advanced troops broke over the crest, obtained some signal advantages over both the English and French, and then, upon being better confronted, began to fall back; but the bulk of the assailing masses had not ceased to advance all this while, and was soon ascending the Ridge. Then with the 7th Léger, with

Weighty attack on the Home Ridge.

a truant little band of Zouaves, and with a few of our own people whom he could gather around him, General Pennefather, after a singular struggle which hung for some minutes in doubt, found means to defeat the great columns thus attacking his centre; and, the collateral forces brought up on the right and on the left being almost simultaneously overthrown by other portions of our infantry, and in part also, too, by our guns, the whole multitude of our troops which had undertaken this onslaught was triumphantly swept forward into the Quarry Ravine.

Fourth Period.—The Allies having no troops in hand with which to press their advantage, the enemy very soon rallied, and with some vigor turned on his pursuers. The French 6th of the Line had been already driven back from our right front, and our people engaged at the centre were more or less losing ground, when the accession of the two 18-pounders, ordered up by Lord Raglan, put an end all at once to the ascendency of the Russians in the artillery arm, and began to tear open that stronghold on the crest of Shell Hill which had hitherto furnished the basis for all their successive attacks.

The enemy rallies.

9:15 A.M. to 10 A.M.

When in this conditions of things General Bosquet approached with fresh troops, there seemed to be ground for believing that the end of the fight must be near.

Fifth Period.—When Bosquet's acceding

reinforcements had brought up his infantry on Mount Inkerman to a strength of 3,500, he was induced to advance with a great part of this force to the false position of the Inkerman Tusk. Upon the approach of a Russian column moving up to ground on his left, where he fancied the English stood posted, he was forced to retreat in great haste with the loss of a gun; and, some Russian battalions appearing in another direction, it was only by a swift spring to the rear that his troops, drawn up on the Tusk, proved able to make good their escape. The 1,500 French troops disposed on Bosquet's left rear fell back behind the Home Ridge; and, the cavalry which Canrobert brought up to cover the retreat being driven from the field by some shells, all this succession of adverse occurrences seemed threatening to end in disaster. The French troops became disconcerted, and the allies were from this cause in jeopardy.

Bosquet brings reinforcements.

10 A.M. to 11 A.M.

Their weakness, however, was masked by the vigor of the English defence maintained all this while at the Barrier, as well as by the might of the two 18-pounders; and, General Dannenberg not seizing his opportunity, the despondency of the French passed away.

Vigorous British defence.

Upon the accession of yet further reinforcements, General Bosquet resumed the offensive, and with two of his battalions he not only defeated that agile Selinghinsk regiment which had once more climbed the Kitspur,

but drove it down over the aqueduct, and out of the Inkerman battlefield. He also withdrew both the 7th Léger and the 6th of the Line from their shelter behind the Home Ridge, and again sent them forward, but they moved by the course of the Post-road, and there had the English in front of them.

Then the share of the French infantry in this Inkerman conflict was unaccountably brought to a close.

Sixth Period.—While still minded to hold fast their respective positions on Mount Inkerman, both the Russians and the French now abandoned the offensive; but our people, still disputing the victory which Canrobert would thus concede to his adversaries, maintained the fight two hours longer without the aid of French infantry, passed gradually from their old attitude of aggressive defence to one of decisive attack, and at length, by the united power of Lord Raglan's two 18-pounders and a small daring band of foot-soldiery, put so sharp a stress on Dannenberg, that—without consulting Prince Mentschikoff—he determined at once to retreat.

The French cease fighting.

Seventh Period.—No pursuit worth recording took place, and General Dannenberg's retreat being accomplished at eight o'clock in the evening, the action came to an end.

1 P.M. to 8 P.M.

From this fight on Mount Inkerman there resulted, it seems, to the enemy a loss of 10,729 in killed, wounded and prisoners. Among his

killed or wounded there were six generals; and, if Russian grades were like ours, the number might be stated at twelve; for, besides Soimonoff and Villebois, and Ochterlonè, and the rest of the six stricken chiefs having actual rank as generals, there were slain or wounded six other officers who each of them held a command extending over thousands of men. The enemy lost altogether 256 officers. Bringing fifty battalions to Mount Inkerman, he kept sixteen in reserve, and all those to the last remained sound; but in the thirty-four fighting battalions with which he delivered his successive attacks, dire havoc was wrought. Twelve of them were all but annihilated; and twelve more were so shattered and beaten as to become for the time nearly powerless, leaving not more than ten out of the whole thirty-four which continued to be at all fit for combat; and even in those—but more especially in the four Okhotsk battalions, where the "killed" exceeded the "wounded"—the losses were ruinously great. The Russians retreat.

In proportion to what they achieved, the losses of the English were moderate, but great, very great, in comparison with their scanty numbers. Out of a strength of only 7,464 infantry collected on Mount Inkerman, with 200 cavalry and 38 guns, they lost in killed and wounded, 2,357, of whom 597 were killed. Of their officers, 130 were struck, 39 being killed and 91 wounded. Russian losses.

Losses of the English

It is believed that of the Guards, engaged in their false position by the Sandbag Battery, nearly a half were killed or wounded in the space of an hour; and in the right wing of the 21st Fusiliers—a body which fought in the centre—the proportion of losses proved even more huge; while in the 20th and 57th regiments it was not much less. Because fighting for the most part in scanty numbers, the combatants of the 2d Division were able to carry on their lengthened struggle from the hour before daybreak to one in the afternoon without losing more than about three-eighths of their strength; and in the companies of the 77th under Egerton, which exerted a great sway over the course of events, the proportion of killed and wounded was about one-fifth.

Loss in commanding officers.

Besides Lord Raglan and the principal officers of the Headquarters Staff, there were ten English generals who came into action on Mount Inkerman, and these ten, with five other chiefs who succeeded to divisional or brigade commands (thus making altogether fifteen), were, all of them, either killed or wounded, or had their horses shot under them. And, with only a single exception, the same may be said of the eighteen colonels or other officers, who brought regiments, or lesser detachments, of foot to Mount Inkerman, and took an active part in the struggle.

The French stated that their loss on Mount Inkerman comprised 13 officers and 130 men

killed, and 36 officers and 750 men wounded. We saw that General Canrobert himself received a wound in the arm and that Colonel de Camas was killed.

The piece of French cannon which the enemy took was left on the battlefield, and recovered after the action. No gun, Russian, English, or French, was definitively lost. Losses of the French.

[In 1855, De Lesseps plans to cut the isthmus of Suez with a canal. A small civil war breaks out in Kansas. The independence of the Orange Free State is recognized. The Governor of Eastern Siberia seizes the Amur. Burton and Speke explore Somaliland. In 1856, by the Treaty of Paris, privateering is forbidden; no neutral goods, except contraband of war, are liable to capture under an enemy's flag; and blockades in future must be effective in order to be binding. The province of Oudh is annexed by the English, who also bombard Canton on account of the Chinese having seized an English ship. Burton discovers Tanganyika, Speke discovers the Victoria Nyanza, and Livingstone explores the entire Zambesi. The Neanderthal skull is discovered. The Dred Scott decision is given by the United States Supreme Court. The great Indian Mutiny breaks out. The English and French join against China, whose fleet is destroyed, and Canton captured. England occupies Perim; and France conquers Algeria.]

THE INDIAN MUTINY

(A.D. 1857)

SIR RICHARD TEMPLE

AFTER the occurrence of some isolated mutinies in the Bengal native soldiery, generally called sepoys, during the early part of 1857, the native portion of the garrison at Meerut, near Delhi, broke out on the 10th of May; the European garrison failed to prevent them, and the mutineers marched straightway to Delhi, and were joined by the native troops there and by the city mob. The rebels set up as Emperor the titular Great Mogul, who dwelt in the ancestral palace there under British protection, and proclaimed the restoration of the Mogul Empire. This event was rapidly followed by the revolt of almost the whole native army of the Bengal Presidency. Their comrades of the Bombay Presidency were but slightly affected, and those of Madras hardly at all. At that time the native forces numbered more than 247,000 men of all arms; of these about 50,000 belonged to Madras, 30,000 to Bombay, and the remainder to Bengal; among the latter.

Outbreak of the Sepoys.

however, were many troops called irregular. A large part of the irregular troops remained stanch; but of the Bengal regular troops only seven battalions continued in service. From 80,000 to 90,000 soldiers, horse and foot, were in revolt, having in many cases murdered their officers, and sometimes the European families also. The mutineers were cantoned over many stations in broad provinces, held forts, arsenals, treasuries. They were armed with British weapons, had been organized with British discipline, were in possession of much artillery, of a great number of cavalry horses and other transports, and of vast sums of treasure. In Hindustan, in Oudh, and in parts of Malwa, throughout the summer the British power was insulated at certain points, such as the camp before Delhi, the cantonment at Meerut, the fortresses at Agra and Allahabad, the weak fortifications at Lucknow. Elsewhere the European magistracy with their families had been either killed or hunted away, and the court-houses with their records burnt. The disaster extended over at least an area of 100,000 square miles, with a population of 40,000,000. It occurred, too, at the worst season of the year. If not speedily stamped out the fire must spread over the whole country. The year was a centenary of historic events. It was just one hundred years since Clive founded British dominion at Plassey, and two hundred since Sivaji the

Number of native troops.

Insulation of the British.

Mahratta struck a deadly blow at the Moslem power. Many an enemy thought that the knell of the empire had sounded. And certainly, unless the resources of the British Isles could be brought to bear upon the scene of revolt within a few months, the British authority would be narrowed to its three original seats —namely, the Presidency towns resting on the sea-board.

Confidence of the natives.

At that time there were 40,000 European troops in the country. Several thousand men on their way from England to China, at Lord Elgin's disposal, were, with his co-operation, diverted to India. Some 40,000 European soldiers were despatched from England round the Cape of Good Hope by a sea-voyage of 12,000 miles. Meanwhile the disasters at Cawnpore and elsewhere in Hindustan had been partially retrieved by Henry Havelock. At the outset a force, largely consisting of Europeans, marched against Delhi. After a severe siege of four months, the place was recaptured by assault. The communications had been maintained continuously with the Punjab, under John Lawrence, as a base whence reinforcements were derived. Native troops were raised from the loyal Punjab in place of the mutineers of Hindustan. Lucknow, for a long while after the death of Henry Lawrence besieged by rebels, was first relieved and afterward recaptured by a European force under Colin Campbell. The districts were

Siege of Delhi and relief of Lucknow.

speedily reoccupied by British authority. Though many influential individuals, some chiefs and princes, and some classes, including the worst part of the mob, had joined the rebellion, or rather the military revolt, still the mass of the people in these districts had remained passive and readily returned to their allegiance. The principal native princes and their states had set an important example of loyalty. Within six months of the outbreak the imperial danger was surmounted, though troubles lasted here and there, and the embers smouldered for more than a year, especially in the hilly parts of the central regions. The cost of suppressing this rebellion is reckoned at forty millions sterling. Unlike all the earlier foreign dynasties, the British power had never been naturalized or domesticated in the country, but was then, as ever, recruited constantly from the British Isles. Its officers serving in the country had been born and educated in Europe, and possessed as a reserve against danger all the imperial qualities of their race.

Loyalty of native princes.

Many causes were assigned for the Indian Mutiny. The greased cartridges served out to some of the Bengal troops operated as an immediate provocation. The Brahmins were too numerous in the ranks; they were fanatical, and they had the brains to conceive mischief when discontented. The Kabul disaster had broken the spell of invincibility. Certain chiefs near the scene of the outbreak were

Causes of the Mutiny.

laboring under a sense of wrong, real or supposed. Some native states had been alarmed at British policy with regard to the right of adoption. The annexation of Oudh, however righteous in itself, had induced many Mohammedan conspirators to excite mutiny, and to turn it to political account. This brought about a very unusual combination between Mohammedans and Hindus. Still, these and other lesser causes would never by themselves have brought about such a crisis as that which has been described. The prime, the fundamental, cause was a large and simple fact, namely, this: The native forces were much too large relatively to the European. There was only one European soldier to six native soldiers, whereas now there is one to two. The sepoys then had the physical force in their hands, and they knew it. The distribution, too, of these excessive numbers aggravated the peril. The sepoys were, as already seen, in charge of the stations containing the state resources, civil as well as military. It was the sense of power which gave them the mind to revolt. Their interests, including employment, pay, pension, and the like, were indeed bound up with the British rule. The government was over-slow to believe that the men would revolt to the destruction of their own prospects. But their conduct proves that there are moments when religious fanaticism, national sentiment, pride, and passion will pre-

Effect of the annexation of Oudh.

Power of the sepoys.

vail over self-interest. The occurrence was only a question of time, and many will wonder why it did not happen before. But an analysis of historic circumstances would show that never before had a complete opportunity offered. Mutiny of particular bodies of troops had often occurred already, and had been overcome. Thus the British authorities came to be insufficiently alive to the symptoms which portended the events of 1857. But after the storm had burst they evinced qualities rarely surpassed in the annals of the nation, and the history of the time is aglow with genius, valor, and capacity.

Blindness of the authorities.

The crisis past, no time was lost in rectifying the military faults which had rendered the revolt possible. The native troops were reduced in number, the European troops were augmented. The physical predominance at all strategic points was placed in the hands of European soldiers, and almost the whole of the artillery was manned by European gunners.

Changes in military policy.

Peace and order having been restored to the Empire in 1858, various changes, constitutional and other, were made. The East India Company, the greatest corporation ever known to history, ceased to exist, and the government was assumed by the British crown. The army was reorganized so as to guard against the danger from which the country had just been saved. As compared with the relative proportions of former times, the Eu-

ropean force was doubled, while the native force was reduced by more than one-third. Thus, as already seen, the European and the native were as one to two; moreover, the European was placed in charge of the strategic and dominant position, so that the physical power was now in his hands. The dominion was consolidated by the work of peace under the successive Viceroys—Elgin, Lawrence, Mayo, Northbrook—with material improvement and moral progress.

Dominion of peace and progress.

[In 1858, a Carbonaro, named Orsini, attempts to murder Napoleon III., and escapes to England. Much ill feeling results between France and England. Napoleon is frightened and turns to Cavour, promising to help expel the Austrians from Italy. The Montenegrins annihilate a Turkish invading army. Moldavia and Wallachia are formed into a single State—Roumania. The East India Company is abolished. The Treaty of Tien-tsin opens China to European trade; China recognizes Russian sovereignty over the whole of Siberia. Japan is opened to unrestricted commerce with England, France, Russia, and the United States. The Virgin is believed to appear at Lourdes. In 1859, Volunteer rifle corps are formed in England. Napoleon marches into Italy against Austria. John Brown is captured and executed for armed rebellion. Queensland is formed into a separate colony.]

NAPOLEON III. IN ITALY

(A.D. 1859)

JOHN WEBB PROBYN

THE ties which united France to Piedmont were strengthened by the marriage, in the end of January, 1859, of the Princess Clotilde, the eldest daughter of Victor Emmanuel, with Prince Napoleon, the first cousin of the French Emperor. Nor was the surmise unfounded that the marriage was accompanied with distinct political stipulations between the two Governments; for an agreement was made by which the Emperor Napoleon promised to give armed assistance to Piedmont if she were attacked by Austria. The result, in case the allies were successful, was to be the formation of a northern kingdom of Italy, described as one possessed of about eleven millions of inhabitants. This agreement was not made public, but was signed on the 18th of January, 1859, by Prince Napoleon and General (afterward Marshal) Neil, on the part of the Emperor of the French, and by Cavour and General Lamarmora, on the part of Victor Emmanuel. Both

Princess Clotilde.

Austria and Piedmont increased their armaments and raised loans in preparation for war. Men of all ranks and conditions of life flocked to Turin from the other States of Italy to join the Piedmontese army or enrol themselves among the volunteers of Garibaldi, who had hastened to offer his services to the King against Austria. Instead of the confusion and division which marked and marred the uprising of Italy in 1848, there were now to be seen union and devotion under the command of that Italian prince who had, ever since he mounted the throne of Piedmont on the field of Novara, remained faithful to the constitutional liberties of his own people, and opened his country as a refuge to all Italians driven into exile for the cause of liberty. Meanwhile, diplomacy made continual efforts to avert war by endeavoring to find some solution of the difficulties and differences to which the Italian problem gave rise. In vain did other Powers seek to bring the views of the Cabinets of Vienna and Turin into agreement by means of various compromises. The gulf separating these two governments was far too wide to be thus bridged over. Then the idea of a European Congress was started. Questions at once arose as to whether Piedmont was to have a seat at the Congress, and if Piedmont, whether the other Italian States were to be admitted; again, were they to have a full or only a consultative voice in the ar-

Austria and Piedmont prepare for war.

Diplomacy's futile efforts.

rangements made? Innumerable were the points of discussion which arose between Paris, London, Turin, Vienna, St. Petersburg, Berlin, not to mention the views expressed by the various little courts of the Italian peninsula. Then came the proposition of a general disarmament, by way of staying the warlike preparations which were taking over enlarged proportions. On the 18th of April, 1859, the Cabinet of Turin agreed to the principle of disarmament at the special request of England and France on the condition that Piedmont took her seat at the Congress. The Cabinet of Vienna had made no reply to this proposition. Then suddenly it addressed, on the 23d of April, an ultimatum to the Cabinet of Turin demanding the instant disarmament of Piedmont, to which a categorical reply was asked for within three days. At the expiration of the three days, Count Cavour, who was delighted at this hasty step of his opponent, remitted to Baron Kellerberg, the Austrian envoy, a refusal to comply with the request made. War was now inevitable. Victor Emmanuel addressed a stirring proclamation to his army on the 27th of April, and two days afterward another to the people of his own kingdom and to the people of Italy. When he left his capital to put himself at the head of his troops he was accompanied by the earnest goodwill of his own subjects and of the vast majority of Italians. The Em-

General disarmament proposed.

Cavour's refusal.

peror of the French, who had promised to aid Piedmont if Austria were the first to take an aggressive step, was faithful to his engagement. On the 30th of April, some French troops arrived at Turin. On the 13th of May, Napoleon III. disembarked at Genoa, where an enthusiastic welcome was given him by the immense concourse of people assembled to witness his meeting with Victor Emmanuel, who came to receive his powerful ally.

Napoleon arrives in Italy.

During the diplomatic campaign, which lasted through the first four months of 1859, Count Cavour, and those who represented his sovereign abroad, played their difficult game with consummate skill; yielding whenever circumstances made it necessary to do so, however hazardous it might be; standing firm just at the moment when such a course approved itself to some, if not all, the great Powers; losing no occasion to further the cause of Piedmont, never losing sight of the end at which they aimed—that not only of securing the influence of Piedmont, but of advancing the cause of constitutional freedom, which she championed, throughout Italy, so far as circumstances permitted. The despotic rulers of Austria, baffled and annoyed, at last lost patience and sent that ultimatum to Turin which gave Count Cavour the opportunity of refusing their demands with dignity, while enabling him at once to claim the

Austria's false step.

assistance which the Emperor of the French had promised if Austria were the first to take a step which made war inevitable. The real difficulty of Austria rose from her ultra-despotic system, which had received its crowning touch in the concordat concluded with the Papal See in 1855—a concordat to which no former ruler of Austria would have consented, so greatly did it fetter and restrict the imperial power. The Italian subjects of Austria hated her rule, as did the subjects of those Italian princes whom she upheld. Hungary had never ceased to desire the restoration of her ancient constitutional rights. The freedom and order of Piedmont only increased the dislike felt by Italians to Austria, and so enhanced her difficulties. The Government of Vienna thought to cut the Gordian knot of its perplexities by war. It had just committed, by its precipitate ultimatum, a diplomatic blunder which its able adversary availed himself of without delay. It now went on to commit a military blunder; for, although the Austrian armies proceeded to cross the Ticino and invade the Piedmontese territory, they failed to make a decisive march on Turin. Had Count Giúlay, the Austrian commander, done so without hesitation, he might well have reached the capital of Piedmont before the French had arrived in sufficient force to enable the little Piedmontese army to arrest the invasion. As it was, the opportunity was lost

Her difficulties.

Her military blunder.

never to occur again. In the first engagements at Montebello and Palestro the advantage rested decidedly with the allies. It was at this last-named battle that Victor Emmanuel, by his bold bearing and courage, excited the admiration not only of his own soldiers, but also of the French Zouaves, who were among the best troops of France. On the 4th of June, the French fought the battle of Magenta, which ended, though not without a hard struggle, in the defeat of the Austrians. On the 8th, the Emperor Napoleon and King Victor Emmanuel entered Milan, where they were received with a welcome as sincere as it was enthusiastic. The rich Lombard capital hastened to recognize the King as its sovereign. While there he met in person Garibaldi, who was in command of the volunteer corps, whose members had flocked from all parts of Italy to carry on, under his command, the war in the mountainous districts of the north against Austria. The cordial and frank bearing of the monarch and his single-hearted devotion to the national cause made the deepest impression on the Italian patriot. Indeed, Garibaldi felt from that moment the utmost confidence in the King; nor was it ever shaken throughout the difficulties, dangers, and trials which beset the progress of Italian freedom until its final victory in Rome.

Battle of Magenta.

Meeting of Napoleon and Garibaldi.

The allied troops pursued their march onward toward the river Mincio, upon whose

banks two of the fortresses of the famous Quadrilateral are situated. On the 24th of June they encountered the Austrian army at Solferino and San Martino. French, Piedmontese, and Austrians fought with courage and determination. Nor was it until after ten or eleven hours of hard fighting that the allies forced their enemy to retreat and took possession of the positions they had occupied in the morning.

Battle of Solferino.

The French and Piedmontese armies had won the battle of Solferino, and driven the enemy across the Mincio; their fleets were off the lagoons of Venice, and were even visible from the lofty Campanile of St. Mark's. Italy was throbbing with a movement of national life daily gathering volume and force. Europe was impatiently expecting the next move. It took the unexpected form of an armistice, which the Emperor of the French proposed, on his sole responsibility, to the Emperor Francis Joseph on the 8th of July. On the 12th, the preliminaries of peace were signed at Villafranca. Victor Emmanuel was opposed to this act of his ally, but was unable to prevent it.

The Peace of Villafranca.

[In 1860, Napoleon obtains Savoy and Nice. Spain gains territory from Morocco. The second Maori war breaks out. The Druses massacre the Maronites, the Mohammedans massacre the Damascus Christians,

South Carolina seceden.

and order is restored by a French army. South Carolina dissolves its union with the United States. Speke and Grant determine the Victoria Nyanza to be the true source of the Nile. Garibaldi invades Sicily.]

END OF THE POPE'S TEMPORAL POWER AND UNIFICATION OF ITALY

ROBERT MACKENZIE

AT the close of the war, Naples, containing a population of nine million, was still ruled by a Bourbon, who maintained over the unhappy people a shameful despotism. The Neapolitans were quick, intelligent, and good-natured—a people capable of high civilization, but cruelly debased by centuries of wicked government. They were ignorant, idle, superstitious, and without just ideas of right and wrong.

State of the kingdom of Naples.

Ferdinand II. was then King, the last of a line of tyrants. His government was regarded with abhorrence by his subjects, and with strong disapproval by Europe. Some years before an eminent English statesman, Mr. Gladstone, had visited Naples. He was led to make inquiry into the relations maintained by the government with those of its subjects who were supposed to be disaffected. He gave to the world the result of his researches in letters addressed to Lord Aberdeen. He showed that there were probably twenty thousand persons

Ferdinand's despotism.

Mr. Gladstone's letters.

held in prison by the Neapolitan government for political reasons; that men were habitually arrested without any offence being charged, simply because the government desired to have them out of the way; that unoffending citizens were imprisoned for years, without trial, among the vilest criminals, often in heavy irons, which were never for a moment removed; that the dungeons were dark, airless, crowded, inexpressibly filthy, and often so low-roofed that the prisoners could not stand erect; that the doctors refused to enter these loathsome cells, and caused such prisoners as required medical care to be brought out to them; that the police habitually inflicted torture; that trial was a mockery of justice; that prisoners who had the rare good fortune to be acquitted were liberated only if the government pleased.

Prison horrors.

These revelations brought upon Naples the reprobation of the civilized world, and left her, in an age of revolution, without a friend. Lord Palmerston sent copies of Mr. Gladstone's letters to the British ministers at all European courts. The Neapolitan Government felt so acutely the damage done to its reputation that it caused a reply to be prepared, which, as Mr. Gladstone showed, virtually admitted the substantial accuracy of his statements.

The Neapolitan Government replies to Gladstone.

The great events which had come to pass in northern and central Italy sent their thrill-

ing influences among the people of the south. An insurrection broke out in Sicily (1860). General Garibaldi summoned about him two thousand men, old soldiers of liberty, and sailed from Genoa, to strengthen and direct the movement. His battle-cry was to be, "Italy and Victor Emmanuel." The King's government was not a little embarrassed by this invasion in the King's name of the territory of a friendly power. Cavour, who had just returned to office, pronounced it the most difficult conjuncture in which he had ever been placed. He could not, without the sanction of France, give encouragement to the conquest of Naples. But the people of the north felt deeply the wrongs of their brethren in the south, and would not suffer any effort for their deliverance to be thwarted. The government officially disapproved of Garibaldi's expedition, but stood prepared to accept the advantages which its success would offer. After a little the King himself wrote to Garibaldi, begging him to desist. The general replied, with many loyal and dutiful assurances, that he was called for and urged on by the people of Naples; that he endeavored in vain to restrain them; that the King must, on this occasion, permit him to be disobedient. But when it became evident that marvellous success was to crown the patriot efforts, Cavour's difficulty vanished. It was necessary that Sardinia should assume the leadership of a great na-

Garibaldi's expedition.

Cavour's dilemma.

tional movement. Otherwise the unity of Italy would have been endangered.

Triumph of the rebellion.

Garibaldi quickly possessed himself of Sicily. He crossed over to the mainland and began his advance to Naples (August 19). His march was a triumphal progress. The troops of the King retired as he drew near; the rejoicing people hailed him as their deliverer. They gave expression to their rapture by illuminations. They brought gifts of fruit and wine to the soldiers. They embraced, with Italian demonstrativeness, the rugged and travel-stained heroes. Garibaldi pressed forward rapidly, and in three weeks he entered Naples. The King and Queen fled on his approach. The people received him with enthusiasm, such as the ancient city had probably never witnessed before.

A portion of the Neapolitan army made a stand on the Volturno, where Garibaldi inflicted upon it final defeat. Garibaldi became for a time dictator, and governed Naples. The people were asked to declare their wishes in regard to their political future. They voted, by vast majorities, in favor of union with Sardinia. The King, in accepting the new trust, summoned the people to concord and self-denial. "All parties," he said, "must bow before the majesty of the Italian nation, which God uplifts."

Union with Sardinia.

Garibaldi did not remain in the kingdom which he had won. He cherished against

Count Cavour a bitter antipathy, and sought to have him dismissed from office. He intimated in the official gazette of Naples his determination never to be reconciled with the man who had sold an Italian province. He felt that he was not in harmony with the political conditions which surrounded him. In three months he had overthrown a despotic government, and added a population of nine million to the free kingdom of Italy. And now his work was done. Unostentatiously he quitted the land which he had saved, and returned in poverty to his little island of Caprera.

Garibaldi retires to Caprera.

The foundations of Italian unity had been laid by the judicious interference of Sardinia in the strifes of the great European powers. A judicious repetition of the same strategy was once more to yield results of the highest value to the national cause (1866). In course of years it became obvious that questions had arisen between Austria and Prussia which could not be solved otherwise than by the sword. Austria's extremity was Italy's opportunity. A treaty was arranged by which Prussia bound herself not to make peace with Austria until Venetia should be gained for Italy. King Victor Emmanuel engaged, on his part, to attack Austria on land with eighty thousand men, and at sea with all his naval force. On both elements he was unsuccessful: the Austrians defeated his army and his fleet. But better fortune crowned the arms of Prussia.

Italy's opportunity.

Two days after the battle of Sadowa, it was announced that Austria had ceded Venetia to France, thus, it may be supposed, lessening in some slight degree the humiliation which her final expulsion from Italy involved. The Emperor Napoleon gracefully handed his acquisition to the Italian Government. It had always been his purpose, he intimated, to restore Italy to herself, so that she should be free from the Alps to the Adriatic, and this programme was now all but completed.

Rome's perilous position.

The sole remaining obstacle was the Pope. The Holy Father still bore rule over the city of Rome and a considerable portion of those regions which the Church claimed to possess as the patrimony of St. Peter. To north and south lay the now united states which made up free Italy. Wedged in between was a population of half a million of Italians longing to be united with their countrymen, enduring impatiently a government which they believed to be the worst in Europe. This was a condition whose continuance was impossible. Italy could not tolerate, in the very heart of the kingdom, an alien state with a blindly despotic government and a discontented population. Moreover, Rome was the inevitable capital of united Italy.

Protected by France.

But the tottering throne of the Pope was still upheld by French bayonets, and the "eldest son" of the Church gave ominous warning to the Italians that his filial duty was to be in-

flexibly discharged. The King of Italy was firmly bound by a convention with France, not only to abstain from making any attack upon the territory of the Holy Father, but also to resist such attack if made by others. And when the Italian Government manifested some disposition to forget that agreement, the Emperor Napoleon sternly intimated that France was prepared to insist upon its fulfilment.

Insurrection in Rome.

But events proved stronger than the Emperor Napoleon. The impatience of the Italian people became irrepressible. Insurrection burst out in Rome. Garibaldi gathered around him a band of unlicensed liberators, most of whom fell into the hands of the French and Papal troops. The Italian question became again a cause of European anxiety. Queen Victoria (November 19, 1867) expressed to Parliament her hope that the Emperor would, by the early withdrawal of his troops, remove any possible ground of misunderstanding between himself and the King of Italy. A week or two later the French quitted Rome, but next day the French Government intimated angrily that "France would never submit to such a violence on her honor and on Catholicity" as the occupation of Papal territory by the Italians.

End of the Papal temporal power.

Three unquiet years passed, bringing vast changes. The Emperor Napoleon was a prisoner in the hands of the Prussians; his armies, shamefully defeated, had found refuge in surrender; the King of Prussia was setting out on

his triumphal march to Paris; the Church was bereaved of her "eldest son." Undutiful Italy did not neglect the opportunity. Her troops forced an entrance into Rome (September 20, 1870). The Empress of France exclaimed, "Rather the Prussians in Paris than the Italians in Rome." The Archbishop of Paris foretold approaching desolation. "Revolution," he said, "will overwhelm the world, and God will know how to create a new order out of its chaos." But neither prophecy nor malediction shook the steady purpose of the Italian people. The subjects of the Pope joyfully united themselves with their countrymen, and the liberation of Italy was at length a completed work.

Italy seizes her opportunity.

[In 1861, the Czar Alexander frees the serfs. The American Civil War breaks out.]

THE EMANCIPATION OF THE SERFS

(A.D. 1861)

ROBERT MACKENZIE

UNDER the rule of his successor the despotic system of Nicholas was to an important extent departed from. The newspaper press experienced sudden enlargement. So urgent was the demand for political discussion, that within a year or two from the close of the war seventy new journals were founded in St. Petersburg and Moscow alone. The government censors discharged their functions with the mildness which the liberal impulses of the time demanded. For a brief space the press enjoyed a virtual freedom from restraint, and availed itself boldly of the unprecedented opportunity. Western Europe had been shut out by the Emperor Nicholas. Its liberal ideas, the history of its recent political revolutions, its marvellous progress in science and the arts—all were unknown to the Russian people. Educated Russians were eager to acquaint themselves with this long-forbidden knowledge; and a crowd of journalists, burning with a love of liberal ideas, hast-

Enlargement of the Press.

Backwardness of Russia.

ened to gratify the desire. An enfranchised press began to call loudly for the education of the people, for their participation in political power; for many other needful reforms. Chief among these, not merely in its urgency, but also in its popularity, was the emancipation of the serfs.

Abolition of serfs long contemplated.

Forty-eight million Russian peasants were in bondage—subject to the arbitrary will of an owner—bought and sold with the properties on which they labored. This unhappy system was of no great antiquity, for it was not till the close of the Sixteenth Century that the Russian peasant became a serf. The evil institution had begun to die out in the west before it was legalized in Russia. Its abolition had long been looked forward to. Catherine II. had contemplated this great reform, and so also had her grandson, Alexander I.; but the wars in which they spent their days forbade progress in any useful direction. Nicholas very early in his reign appointed a secret committee to consider the question; but the Polish insurrection of 1830 marred his design. Another fruitless effort was made in 1836. In 1838, a third committee was appointed, but its work was suspended by "a bad harvest," and never resumed. Finally, it was asserted that the dying Emperor bequeathed to his son the task which he himself had not been permitted to accomplish.

Alexander's inherited task

And thus it came to pass that when Alex-

ander II. ascended the throne, the general expectation of his people pointed to the emancipation of the serfs. The Emperor shared in the national desire. At his coronation he prepared the somewhat reluctant nobles for the change which to many of them was so unwelcome. A little later he nominated a committee, chosen from the proprietors, whose duty it was to frame, in accordance with certain principles laid down for their guidance, the details of this great revolution. Three years followed of discussion, adjustment, revision, and then the decree was published which conferred freedom upon nearly fifty million Russian peasants.

The decree published (1861).

The position of the Russian serf, although it had much to degrade, was without the repulsive features of ordinary slavery. The estate of the Russian landowner was divided into two portions. The smaller of the two—usually not more than one-third—was retained for the use of the proprietor. The larger was made over to the village community, by whom it was cultivated, and to whom its fruits belonged. The members of that community were all serfs, owned by the great lord and subject to his will. He could punish them by stripes when they displeased him; when he sold his lands he sold also the population. He could make or enforce such claims upon their labor as seemed good to him. Custom, however, had imposed reasonable limitations

Position of the Russian serf.

Opportunities for advancement.

on such claims. He selected a portion of his serfs to cultivate his fields and form his retinue. The remainder divided their time equally between his fields and their own: three days in each week belonged to their master, and three days belonged to themselves. Many of them purchased, for a moderate payment, the privilege of entire exemption from the work of their owner. It was customary for these enterprising bondmen to settle in the nearest city, where occasionally they attained to wealth and consideration. Instances have occurred of wealthy bankers and merchants who still remained the property of a master, to whom a humiliating recognition of their servile estate was periodically offered.

The lands which were in possession of the villagers were divided by lot among the separate families. As the number of claimants fluctuated, a fresh division was made every ninth year. A villager never lost his right to participate in the common inheritance. He might be absent for years, seeking his fortune in the city, but when it pleased him to return and claim his interest in the lands of his native village, the claim could not be resisted.

Law of emancipation.

The law of emancipation bestowed personal freedom on the serfs. For two years those who were household servants must abide in their service; receiving, however, wages for their work. Those who had purchased exemption from the obligation to labor for their

lord were to continue for two years the annual payment. At the end of that time all serfs entered on possession of unqualified freedom.

The villagers continued in occupation of the lands which they had heretofore possessed; but they became bound to pay a purchase-price or a sufficient equivalent in rent or in labor. The continued occupation was not voluntary, but compulsory; and no peasant may withdraw without consent of the whole community, which, in the northern parts of the Empire, is gained only by purchase. The lands thus acquired are not owned by individuals, but by the community. All obligations to the former proprietor or to the State are obligations of the associated villagers. The land system of the greater portion of Russia is thus a system of communism. The industrious villager is the co-obligant of the idle and vicious. The motive which impels a man to the careful cultivation of his land is weakened by the knowledge that in a short time he will have to change fields with his neighbor. The peasant is assured of a maintenance which no misconduct on his part can alienate, but he is left almost without hope of rising to a better position. The portion of land assigned to him furnishes only partial employment. Recent changes in the excise laws bring stimulants within easy reach of all. Promoted by idleness, ignorance, and

Compulsory occupations.

System of communism.

Increase of drunkenness.

abundant opportunity, drunkenness has fearfully increased since the abolition of serfdom. The indolent peasant works reluctantly for hire to his former lord. Notwithstanding an abundance of laborers, there is a serious insufficiency in the supply of labor. It is believed that over much of the country the productions of agriculture are diminishing.

[In 1862, the Greeks expel their King, Otto. George, the second son of the King of Denmark, is chosen by England to take his place; representative institutions are established. Napoleon begins his aggressive schemes on Mexico. Farragut captures New Orleans; the *Alabama* leaves the Mersey, notwithstanding protests; the Federals are repulsed at Bull Run; Lee invades the North and then retreats; the *Merrimac* is worsted by the *Monitor;* Annam cedes part of Cochin China to France.]

Farragut captures New Orleans.

Monitor and *Merrimac.*

THE POLISH INSURRECTION

(A.D. 1860—1863)

ALFRED RAMBAUD

GREAT hopes awakened in Poland at the accession of the new sovereign; they went as far as the re-establishment of the Constitution, and even to the reunion of the Lithuanian provinces with the kingdom. The awakening of Italy had made that of Poland appear possible; the concessions of the Emperor of Austria to Hungary led men to expect the same from Alexander II. The interview of the three northern sovereigns at Warsaw, in October, 1860, caused a certain irritation among the people. It is necessary also to take into consideration the intrigues set on foot by the Polish committees abroad. If many Poles counted on the support of Alexander II. to help them to raise their country, others wished to emancipate her entirely from Russia. There existed, therefore, two parties, in Warsaw and in the foreign committee; the one wished to take Italy as an example, the other would be content with the new lot of Hungary. The emancipation of the peasants

Poland's hopes.

Two parties.

was in Poland, as in Russia, the question of the day, but the conditions of the question were different in Warsaw from what they were in Moscow; the personal liberty of the rustics had been decreed by Napoleon I., at the time that the Grand Duchy was created; but as they had received no property, they continued to farm the lands of the nobles, and paid their rent either in money or by *corvées*. The substitution of a fixed money payment instead of a *corvée* was the first step in the path of reform, which might be carried further by allowing the husbandman to become a proprietor, by paying annually a fixed sum toward the repurchase of the land, and putting means of credit at his disposal. The Agricultural Society, presided over by Count Andrew Zamoiski, found that it was the interest of the Polish nation to anticipate the Russian Government, and to secure to the native nobility the honor of emancipation; the government, on the contrary, represented by M. Monkhanof, director of the Interior, decided that it was to its advantage to fetter the activity of the society, to forbid the discussion of the question of repurchase, and to confine its functions to the mutation of the *crovée* into fixed dues.

Policy of the Agricultural Society.

Agitation at Warsaw.

The contest between the Agricultural Society and the Government increased the agitation which already existed at Warsaw. On the 29th of November, 1860, on the occasion of the thirtieth anniversary of the revolution of

1830, demonstrations at once national and religious took place in the streets of the capital, and portraits of Kosciuszko and Kilinski were distributed. On the 25th of February, 1861, the day of the anniversary of the battle of Grochov, the Agricultural Society held a meeting to deliberate on an address in which the Emperor should be asked for a constitution. Tumultuous crowds gathered in the streets, singing national songs. On the 27th, on the occasion of a funeral service for the victims of the preceding insurrections, there was a new demonstration, which had to be suppressed, with the loss of five killed and ten wounded. Prince Gortchakof, Viceroy of Poland, touched by these strange manifestations, in which the disarmed people confined themselves stoically to facing the musketry without interrupting their songs, labored with Count Zamoiski for the restitution of order. The address to the Emperor was circulated in Warsaw, and was covered with signatures; 100,000 persons quietly followed the obsequies of the victims of the 27th of February.

Address to the Emperor.

Without desiring to grant a constitution, the Emperor Alexander II. made, however, many important concessions. He decreed (edict of March 26) a council of state for the kingdom, a department of public education and of worship, elective councils in each government and each district, and municipal councils at Warsaw and in the principal cities of the kingdom.

The Marquis Viélépolski, a Pole belonging to the party which hoped for the re-establishment of Poland by Russia, was named director of public worship and education.

Dissolution of the Agricultural Society.

These concessions were likely to reconcile at least the constitutional party; unhappily, their effect was destroyed by the sudden dissolution of the Agricultural Society, in which the mass of people had placed its hopes, and the demonstrations continued. On the 7th of April a crowd assembled in the square of the *Zamok* (castle of the Viceroy) to demand that the edict of dissolution should be withdrawn, but it dispersed without any result before the hostile attitude of the troops. On the 8th of April the multitude reappeared, more numerous and more violent, shouting that they wanted a *country;* a postilion, who was driving a postchaise, played on his cornet the favorite air of Dombrovski's legions, "No, Poland shall not perish." The crowd, composed in great part of women and children, presented a passive resistance and invincible *vis inertiæ,* on which the charges of cavalry had no effect. The troops then had recourse to their arms,

Massacre by the troops.

and fifteen rounds of shot laid 200 dead and a large number of wounded at the feet of the statue of the Virgin. On the following days the people appeared only in mourning, in spite of the prohibition of the police. This uneasy state of things was prolonged for many months. On the 10th of October a Polish and a Lithu-

anian procession celebrated at Hodlevo, on the Polo-Lithuanian frontier, the four-hundredth anniversary of the union of the two countries. The humanity of the Russian commandant allowed the fête to be held without the effusion of blood.

The Government still made one attempt at conciliation when the Emperor appointed Count Lambert as Viceroy, with orders to apply the reforms decreed in March, 1861, but the effect of his nomination was weakened by the presence at his side of men devoted to the policy of repression. The anti-Russian party, besides, had not disarmed. On the 15th of October, on the anniversary of Kosciuszko, the people flocked to the churches of Warsaw; the military authorities caused the churches to be surrounded by detachments, without seeing that the inoffensive inhabitants, alarmed at the display, would refuse to leave the churches, and that it would be necessary to drag them out by force. In fact, after a useless blockade that lasted a day and a night, up to four in the morning, the soldiers had to force the cathedral, and carry 2,000 people to the fortress. Count Lambert loudly complained to General Gerstenszweig, the military governor. After a fierce altercation, the latter blew out his brains, and Lambert was recalled.

Count Lambert appointed Viceroy.

He was succeeded by Count Lüders, who began a period of reaction, and a certain number of influential Warsovians were trans-

Count Luders.

ported. The Grand Duke Constantine, made Viceroy on the 8th of June, 1862, again tried a policy of reconciliation. Viélépolski, one of the promoters of the address to the Emperor, was nominated chief of the civil power. Enthusiasts attempted the lives of Lüders, of Viélépolski, even of the Grand Duke, and violent men profited by all the errors of the Government to push things to extremity, and to turn its good intentions against it. The Poles of Warsaw committed the error of disquieting Russia about the provinces which she regarded as Russian, and an integral part of the empire; the proprietors did not content themselves with demanding in an address to Constantine, that the government of Poland should be Polish, which was reasonable and just, but insisted that the Lithuanian palatinates should be reunited to the kingdom. The upper classes of Podolia expressed the same wish with regard to that province, to Volhynia and the Ukraine. These imprudences caused the exile of Zamoiski and the arrest of the Podolian agitators. All understanding became impossible; an exercise of authority precipitated the explosion; in the night of the 15th of January, 1863, the military government laid violent hands on the recruits.

Podolian agitators are arrested

The conscripts who had escaped from the police formed the nucleus of the rebel bands which promptly appeared at Blonié and at Siéroçk. The war could no longer assume

the great character of those of 1794 or of 1831; there was now no Polish army to struggle seriously with that of Russia: it was a little war of guerrillas and sharpshooters, who could nowhere hold their own against the Russians, but who plunged into the thick forests of Poland, and concealed themselves there, only to appear further on and harass the columns. There were no battles, only skirmishes, the most serious of which was that of Vengrov, on the 6th of February, 1863. A few chiefs made themselves names: among these were Leo Frankovski, Sigismond Padlevski, Casimir Bogdanovitch, Miélençki, the energetic Bossak-Hauke (who was one day to fall under the French flag in the fields of Burgundy); the French Rochebrune and Blankenheim, Mademoiselle Poustovoijov, Siérakovski (ex-colonel in the Russian army, who was hanged after his check in Lithuania); the priest-soldier, Maçkiévicz, Narbutt (son of the historian); Lélével (a pseudonym adopted by a Warsaw workman), and Marian Langiévicz, soon appointed dictator, but who, after the skirmishes of the 17th, 18th, and 19th of March, was driven back into Gallicia, and detained there by the Austrians. The secret committee of insurrection, or anonymous government of Poland, had summoned the peasants to liberty and the enjoyment of property.

Guerrilla warfare.

The exasperated Russians treated the towns and villages concerned in the affair with great

Cruelty of the Russians.

cruelty. The village of Ibiany was destroyed, and the Polish chiefs taken with arms in their hands were shot or hanged. General Mouravief in Lithuania declared that it was "useless to make prisoners." Berg in Poland, Dlotovskoi in Livonia, and Annenkof in the Ukraine, were the agents of a rigorous repression. Felinski, Archbishop of Warsaw, was transported into the interior of Russia, as a punishment for having written a letter to the Emperor.

Europe was touched. On the 5th of January, 1863, the French minister, Billault, in the tribune of the Corps Législatif, had blamed the "baseless hopes excited in the minds of patriots, whose powerless efforts could only bring about new evils;" he recommended the insurgents to the clemency of Alexander. Then France, England and Austria decided to have recourse to diplomatic intervention, invited the other Powers who had signed the Treaty of Vienna to join in their efforts, and laid before the Russian Government the notes of April, 1863, which invited her to put an end to the periodical agitations of Poland by a policy of conciliation. On June 17, the three Powers proposed a programme with the following conditions: 1. An amnesty; 2. The establishment of a national representation; 3. The nomination of Poles to public offices; 4. The abolition of restrictions placed on Catholic worship; 5. The exclusive use of

Intervention of European Powers.

Conditions required.

the Polish language, as the official language of the administration, of justice, and of education; 6. A regular and legal system of recruiting. This intervention of the Western Powers, which was supported by no military demonstration, was rejected by the famous note of Prince Gortchakof, Chancellor of the Empire, and the idea of a European conference was likewise rejected. Europe found herself powerless, and Napoleon III. had to content himself in his speech from the throne with the declaration that the treaties of 1815 were "trampled under foot at Warsaw." The conduct of Prussia had been quite different; she had concluded with Russia the convention of the 8th of February, 1863, for the suppression of the Polish manifestations, and thus laid the foundation of that Prusso-Russian alliance which was to prove so useful to her.

Extinction of Poland.

This insurrection was to cost Poland dear. The last remains of her autonomy were extinguished. To-day, the "kingdom" is nothing but a name, and the country has been divided into ten provinces (1866). The Russian language has replaced the Polish in all public acts; the University of Warsaw is a Russian university; the primary, secondary, and superior education all lend their aid to the work of denationalization. Poland lost her institutions without obtaining the benefit of those of Russia—the *zemstva,* the jury, and the new tribunals. As the government held the nobles

responsible for the insurrection, it therefore markedly favored the peasants, authorizing them to "enter into full and entire possession of the lands which they held." An oukaze of the 10th of December, 1865, rendered the sale of confiscated and sequestrated property imperative, and Russians alone might be purchasers.

Finland's privileges.

Finland, on the contrary, had all her privileges confirmed. In 1863, Alexander convoked the diet of the grand duchy, the second that had been held since the annexation to the Empire. The German nobility of the Baltic provinces, more docile and more politic than that of Poland, were not disturbed. The University of Dorpat remained a German university; the government only took measures to protect the language and religion of the Empire against the propagation of the German tongue and of the Protestant religion. The bold demands of the Slavophil Iouri Samarine, in his *Russian Frontiers,* and the lively polemic sustained against him by the Baltic writers—Schirren, Wilhelm von Bock, Julius Eckart, and Sternberg—did not lead to any important changes in the three governments of Livonia, Courland, and Esthonia.

THE FIGHT BETWEEN THE "MONITOR" AND THE "MERRIMAC"

(A.D. 1862)

JAMES SCHOULER

ON the same day that Johnston's retreat from Manassas was made known at the White House, a sea encounter occurred at Hampton Roads, off Fortress Monroe, which revolutionized in effect the naval warfare of the civilized world. This was the ironclad combat of the *Monitor* and *Merrimac*. On both sides American inventive genius had been at work over armor-plated vessels and the use of the ram, public appropriation having been made for experiments. At the Tredegar works in Richmond, the *Merrimac,* rescued by its captors when Gosport navy yard burned, was converted into an ironclad. A wedge-shaped prow of cast-iron projected about two feet in front of this vessel; while a wooden roof, sloping to the water's edge, was covered with two iron plates of armor, inside of which was placed a battery of ten guns. On the Union side, the Navy Department, from the plans submitted, chose

Appropriations for experiments.

Ericsson plans the *Monitor.*

that of John Ericsson, of New York, a man of scientific acquirements, Swedish by birth, but an American by adoption. His *Monitor,* a craft of careful model and superior workmanship, seemed almost providentially constructed to engage the clumsier *Merrimac* at the right moment. For sea service it was defective; but in light draught and nimbleness of motion it was well suited for shoal harbors and rivers. Like a "cheese-box on a raft," as well described by the Union press, this ironclad presented only a thin edge of surface above and below the water line, while an iron turret revolved in sight from which two large guns might be rapidly trained and fired.

Three wooden Union frigates of the older pattern lay at anchor under the guns of Fortress Monroe, and two others near Newport News, further within the bay, when about noon on Saturday, March 8th, this reconstructed *Merrimac* plowed suddenly toward them from the mouth of the James River near Norfolk, under an armed convoy. The three nearest frigates slipped their cables at once, expecting an easy encounter; but, being all of deep draught, they soon ran aground in low water. From Newport News the two other frigates, with shore batteries besides, opened fire upon this strange craft, which looked like some huge, half-submerged crocodile; but, to their amazement, the iron hail bounded from the sloping back of the dark leviathan like

rubber balls. On came the monster, and crashed her iron prow into the *Cumberland,* which sank in forty-five minutes, carrying down officers and crew; and the colors still floated at her masthead as the *Merrimac,* hovering about her, sent shot into the defenceless hull. Next, turning upon the *Congress,* which had made for shore, the *Merrimac* took up a raking position and riddled her with hot shot and shells, until after fearful carnage that vessel burned until midnight, when explosion of the magazine made an end of her. Drawing off at dusk, the iron champion returned with its convoy to the Norfolk side and anchored under the guns of Confederate batteries until morning.

The *Merrimac's* victory, March 8, 1862.

The day's news carried consternation to Washington. This strange and terrible engine of war, impervious to our heaviest shot, what irreparable damage might it not inflict? Two of the three frigates that had run aground were with difficulty drawn off; but the *Minnesota** stuck fast, the first probable victim of the next daylight. Deliverance was providentially at hand, neither summoned nor sent for. By the light of the burning *Congress* the puny *Monitor* from New York was towed into Hampton Roads late that very evening, and, under the brave Lieutenant John L. Worden, took station near the stranded frigate. On Sunday morning the *Merrimac* ap-

Consternation in Washington.

* Twin frigate to the original *Merrimac*.

proached, like a Goliath, sure of the prey; but the pygmy, like David, advanced to meet her. A single combat of three hours ensued, which spectators lining both shores viewed with prolonged wonder and eagerness. It began a duel of the invulnerables, and ended with no obvious impression made on either adversary; but the lighter craft, by forcing the heavier to withdraw, gained the essential victory. The *Merrimac* was twice the *Monitor's* length and breadth, and carried five times as many guns. Her great draught compelled her to manœuvre in deep water, while the Ericsson craft, drawing only ten feet, could run where she pleased and bring her guns to bear upon an iron target far broader than her own. The *Merrimac* began leaking, and there was danger of penetrating the joints of her armor; she rushed in vain to sink the agile foe, having lost her iron prow the day before; and, just as the second in command on the *Monitor* relieved Worden, who had received a slight injury while in the pilot-house, the *Merrimac* started on her retreat, refusing further fight.*

The duel of March 9.

The *Merrimac* withdraws.

Wooden walls, however, won the victory at New Orleans; and gunboats on our Western rivers, only partially protected with iron chains or plates, did good service against the

* The *Merrimac's* engines were poor, and fear was felt of a falling tide. The pilot-house arrangement of the original *Monitor* was afterward improved.

more imposing, but ill-built Confederate rams and armor-plated craft, which never did such deadly work again nor caused such terror as on this first occasion. The valiant *Monitor* soon lent her name to a whole Union fleet, built after the turreted model, which operated before Charleston and Richmond; and, the world over, naval ingenuity entered upon a new era of invention, which has hardly yet, at this late day, perfected its experiments.

The *Monitor* is accepted as a model.

RISE AND FALL OF THE MEXICAN EMPIRE

(A.D. 1863—1867)

JULES GAUTIER

NAPOLEON III. dreamed of founding in Mexico a Latin empire which would counterbalance the influence of the United States, and pursued this project in accord with the clerical conservative party.

Napoleon's ambitions for founding a Latin empire.

When he learned of the convention of the soledad he sent to Mexico a brigade of 4,500 men under General Latrille de Lorencez, accompanied by General Almonte, son of the patriot Morelos and one of the heads of the conservatives. With him came Father Miranda and other notable priests. Juarez gave the order to arrest "the traitors and reactionaries," and the representatives of Spain and England, Prim and Wyke, demanded that Almonte should be sent back. Jurien de la Gravière refused, and in April the English and Spanish corps evacuated Mexico.

The French manifesto.

On April 16, the French published a strange manifesto in which they declared they had come to Mexico to put a stop to the divisions of the country. This was war. A conserva-

tive revolution was counted upon, but it did not take place; Almonte and Miramon could only group 5,000 adherents around the foreign camp; not a town opened its gates. Juarez issued a decree calling all men to arms from twenty-one to sixty years, and threatening with death any who gave aid to the enemy. On April 28, De Lorencez forced the passage of the mountains at Cumbres, and on May 5 attacked Puebla, which Zaragoza defended with 12,000 men; he was repulsed and lost 476 soldiers. On May 18, a defeat of the Mexicans at Bananceseca by the French compensated for this check. The French army remained at Orizaba, maintaining with difficulty its communication with Vera Cruz. It received supplies from a new commandant, General Forey, who landed in August with 30,000 men, and climbed slowly toward Orizaba, where he dissolved the pseudo-government organized by Almonte (October, 1862). He established a line of communication with Vera Cruz, and on May 16, 1863, began the siege of Puebla; Zaragoza was dead; Ortega defended the place with 22,000 men, while Comonfort covered Mexico. The siege was terrible; they had to take each *cuadra* (square of houses) one by one. Despite cholera and typhus, the besieged held out three months; finally, on May 8, Comonfort's army was dispersed by Bazaine at San Lorenzo; on the 17th, Ortega surrendered himself after having spiked his

The siege of Puebla.

Cholera and typhus.

150 cannon, broken his arms and scattered his powder; 26 generals, 1,000 officers and 11,000 soldiers were taken prisoners. Juarez left Mexico on May 31, retiring to San Luis de Potosi. Bazaine entered the capital on June 7th. The French entered Mexico City in triumph with the acclamations of the people; an assembly of thirty-five notable conservatives was reunited and restored the authority to the triumvirate of Almonte, De Labastida, Archbishop of Mexico, and General Marianno Salas, a former lieutenant of Santa Anna. They convened 250 notables under the name of a Constituent Assembly, to deliberate, and on June 10 made this illegal, unelected body vote the following resolution: "The Mexican nation adopts for form of government a temperate and hereditary monarchy, under a Catholic prince; the sovereign will take the name of Emperor of Mexico; the imperial crown will be offered to the Archduke Maximilian of Austria, for himself and for his descendants."

Bazaine enters the Capital.

Resolution of the Assembly.

At first, circumstances seemed favorable to the Napoleonic combination. Forey, appointed a marshal, returned to France, leaving the command to Bazaine (October 1, 1863). The latter made rapid operations with the help of the conservative bands of the Marquez and Mejia. The liberal armies were broken up; there remained little else than guerrillas, reinforced by the remnants of the troops of

The liberal forces.

Comonfort and the fugitives from Puebla; the nucleus of the regular army was composed of pressed Indians, serving indifferently under any flag; as for the guerrillas, formed of bands of volunteers or *vaqueros* grouped around their proprietaries, they were divided between the liberals and reactionaries. The two principal leaders of the revolutionary cause were Juarez in the north and Porfirio Diaz in the south.

Bazaine gathered the Mexicans in two columns under General Douai and General Cartaguy, and had Colonel Dupin organize some contra guerrillas. San Luis de Potosi was taken on December 25; Guadalajara on January 5, and Zacatecas on February 6, 1864; Juarez took refuge in Monterey, from which he chased the Governor of New Leon, Vidaurri, who wished to be independent. Juarez solicited the aid of the United States, offering to cede Sonora, but that country being absorbed by the War of Secession it would not accept. Comonfort had been killed. Ortega, who had escaped, was embroiled with the President and seemed disposed to ally himself with Bazaine. The new Emperor had a clear field. He had declared on October 3 to a Mexican deputation that came to Miramar to offer him the crown that he would accept it under the reserve of the unanimous adhesion of the nation; the address was signed by two thousand communes; on April 10, 1864, the

The United States refuse aid.

Archduke announced his adhesion, was consecrated by the Pope at Rome, and sailed for Vera Cruz on May 29.

Maximilian arrived in Mexico with his wife, Marie Charlotte (daughter of the King of Belgium), on June 12, 1864. He attempted a conciliatory policy, scattering the extreme clerical orders. He refused to restore the *fueros* of the clergy and abolish the *peónat,* which was a kind of bondage imposed upon the Indians. By this means he alienated the reactionaries without rallying the patriots around him. At the same time he promulgated martial law against the republicans who still held the country. The French army had occupied Monterey and driven Juarez back to Chihuahua; Bazaine marched against Porfirio Diaz, and took Oajaca on February 9, 1865, and then occupied Chihuahua (August 15). Juarez installed himself at El Paso del Norte, the last point of Mexican territory that had remained free.

Maximilian arrives in Mexico.

It was thought that he had gone into the United States, and on October 3 Maximilian issued a decree declaring that this departure had put an end to the resistance and that henceforth the liberal guerrillas would be regarded as associations of malefactors and their members should be shot in twenty-four hours; any one providing them with arms, provisions or information must submit to capital punishment. These severe measures were not calcu-

Maximilian issues a severe decree.

lated to strengthen a rule that was supported only by foreign bayonets.

The downfall of the new Empire of Mexico was rapid. It was never recognized by the United States, which had never ceased treating Juarez as the head of legal power. On April 4, 1864, Congress, at Washington, had declared that the people of the United States considered it incompatible with its principles to recognize a monarchy instituted under the auspices of a European Power. Neither the Senate nor the President were connected with it; but as the War of Secession drew near its close, on February 9, 1865, the Federal Government, in the name of the Monroe Doctrine, demanded Napoleon III. to recall his troops, so as to leave the Mexicans free to choose their own government. Vainly they tried to protract matters; the language of the United States became menacing, and evacuation became inevitable. A loan of 170 millions, subscribed in France, brought but 50 millions to the government. Bazaine and Maximilian were not in harmony and were powerless; the Pope had rejected a new concordat that sanctioned the sale of the possessions of the clergy. Disaffection multiplied. Immovable, Juarez, whose powers expired on November 30, 1865, had prorogued them, refusing to yield place to the president of the Supreme Court, Ortega, who should have filled the interim. Volunteers streamed in

Rapid downfall of the Empire.

Juarez refuses to yield his powers.

from the United States; the execution of the republican leaders, Arteaga and Salazar, shot by General Mendez (October 31, 1865), only served to excite the patriots. Even old Santa Anna issued from his retreat in Havana. As soon as the order for the return of the French troops was known, the Mexicans shook off the yoke. In January, 1866, the Liberals were masters of the State of Durango; in February, of New Leon; on June 14, Mejia capitulated at Matamoros; Monterey was evacuated; Tampico was taken in August, and Juarez was reinstalled at Chihuahua in September. Vainly did the Empress Charlotte supplicate Napoleon; they even refused to send fresh Austrian volunteers. The chivalrous Maximilian refused to abdicate, unwilling to abandon his followers to the reprisals of the conquerors. On March 11, 1867, the last of the French soldiers departed; the Belgians and most of the Austrians had also left. Events followed rapidly; the bands of Apaches and Opatas that had guarded the Imperial tent were pushed to the north; the Imperialists were vanquished as far south as Yucatan; Porfirio Diaz, after having defeated Marquez, arrived before the gates of Mexico; Maximilian retired into the fortress of Queretaro, while Marquez shot his prisoners and terrorized the capital. Escobedo besieged Queretaro, where Miguel Lopez surrendered the citadel (May 15, 1867); Mendez was shot on the same day;

Mexico shakes off the yoke.

The French depart.

in the following month, Maximilian shared the same fate with Mejia and Miramon (June 19). The Liberals would not allow the departure for Europe of a pretender whose court had been the permanent arena for conspiracies; and they meant to give a bloody warning to all European princes in quest of a crown. On June 21, General Diaz entered Mexico; on June 25, Vera Cruz surrendered. Juarez re-entered his capital amid acclamations and was re-elected president.

Maximilian executed.

[In 1863, the Ionian Islands are united to Greece; a Polish insurrection against conscription is brutally suppressed by Muravieff. Lincoln issues a proclamation abolishing slavery. Grant captures Vicksburg and controls the whole Mississippi. Lee defeats the Federals at Chancellorsville and invades the North, but is defeated at Gettysburg. Gordon suppresses the Taiping Rebellion. Japan is attacked by French, English, and American fleets.]

Lincoln abolishes slavery.

THE EMANCIPATION OF THE SLAVES

(A.D. 1863)

JAMES SCHOULER

POSTERITY, which finds the pathway cleared, must do justice to the humane generation of Americans that hesitated, while considering its honest legal duty. Most admirably did the President himself express the dominant loyal sentiment of his times, which forbade that emancipation should supplant the original cause for taking up arms instead of applying in furtherance of it. "My paramount object in this struggle," as he declared in an oft-quoted letter to Horace Greeley, "is to save the Union, and is not either to save or to destroy slavery. If I could save the Union without freeing any slave, I would do it; and if I could save it by freeing all the slaves, I would do it; and if I could save it by freeing some and leaving others alone, I would also do that." *

Dominant sentiment of the day.

But a year of desperate and indecisive conflict had shown to the North God's guidance

* This was written only a month before he issued the preliminary proclamation of emancipation.

toward new social conditions. Scarcely were Northern troops seen hastening to the defence of the capital, when John Quincy Adams's speech was recalled and reprinted in Northern presses, with that ominous threat that slaves might be lawfully freed by a constitutional exercise of the war power in case of disloyal rebellion. It was impossible that the rebellious States should be invaded at all without making slavery omnipresent in its military aspects. And one point soon became clear, that troops from the free and loyal States were not to be used at the seat of war as slave-catchers or the police of social oppression. Butler, who, though of Democratic and Doughface antecedents, was a quick-witted politician, read those signs speedily. On reaching Maryland at the first call to arms, he offered the use of his regiments as a Massachusetts brigadier to put down any slave uprising which might occur there, and joined issue through the press with his governor on that subject; but a month later, when in Federal command at Fortress Monroe, he was of all generals zealous to formulate a policy which should compel slavery to endure its own disadvantage. Of slave insurrection there was never a serious danger; but these docile children of nature would come flocking into the Union lines like estrays, because the master's hold was loosened. Butler framed the ingenious plea that such fugitives were

Speech of John Quincy Adams.

Slavery and the war.

Slaves contraband of war.

contraband of war, since the enemy used the able-bodied slave to build batteries and dig intrenchments. That expression was a happy one, and became immensely popular. "I'se contraband," the grinning runaway was supposed to say to the master who sought to reclaim him; and the idea of self-confiscation tickled so greatly the Northern sense of humor that the chattel was left unsurrendered. For negro freedom was popular enough with the North if only the Constitution were obeyed.

Conservative attitude of some Northern generals.

Strict confiscation had in law but a limited range; and in the practical denial of a surrender for such waifs of bondage our department generals found occasion to differ. Thus, in 1861, while Butler in southeastern Virginia virtually freed the slaves who came to him, Sherman and Buell in Kentucky, Dix in Maryland, and Halleck in Missouri, slave regions less positively disloyal, took a more conservative attitude and ordered slaves kept out of their lines. This latter course avoided, were it possible, all implied obligation of surrendering to loyal masters; for, as Dix wrote, "we have nothing to do with slaves." In some rare instances orders issued that fugitives should be restored; but the undercurrent of military practice strengthened in the direction of permitting freedom. The love of curiosity, of novelty, of vagrancy, and his own irrepressible longing for liberty, brought the slave into the Union camps, ragged and shift-

less; and humanity enjoined that he should be fed and sheltered. Officers kept such negroes as servants or set them to work as cooks, teamsters, and laborers; and when campaigns of invasion began, whole families of slaves were found upon plantations, deserted by their owners and helpless. In the mildest sense of lost and abandoned property government might well have claimed reimbursement for its care and support of such creatures.

Plainly, then, as things tended after the real struggle of civil war began, this Union could never have been restored to its previous condition, as concerned slavery, with that institution strong as before. The awakening of the Northern mind was shown in the second session, in which were debated long and earnestly the new and shifting aspects of this always perplexing problem. Had McClellan's spring campaign in Virginia ended in the speedy capture and downfall of Richmond, a practical, though somewhat negative, emancipation must in the nature of things have largely resulted from his military operations. Public opinion moved onward. A treaty with Great Britain for a joint suppression of the slave-trade, with a mutual right to search suspected merchant vessels, was concluded at Washington in April of the new year. And of other practical measures tending in the same direction, passports were to be granted without distinction of color; Hayti and Li-

A new awakening

Treaty with Great Britain.

beria gained recognition for diplomatic intercourse; freedom was declared henceforth within all territories of the United States; slavery was eradicated in the District of Columbia by a measure such as Lincoln had proposed years earlier, while in Congress; and the curse was removed from the soil of the nation's capital.

Conscious that this philanthropic drift must continue, the President now procured the sanction of Congress to a general plan of compensated abolition for winning the loyal border States to freedom. A joint resolution of April 10th, which passed Congress at his suggestion, offered the co-operation of government to any State that might emancipate, whether gradually or at once, by giving pecuniary indemnity for the inconvenience, public and private, of changing the system. Recompense, in other words, was offered to the loyal border States, on the principle just applied as of constitutional right in the District of Columbia. Lincoln's message of March 6th, solemnly commending such co-operation, was meant to avert more violent results, and to tender seasonably to slaveholders the olive branch.

Lincoln's message of March 6, 1862.

Lincoln was a man of expedients; and, impressed though he was by the moral aspects of the struggle forced upon him, he took anxious care not to foster dissensions among loyal States, nor suffer a strife for the integrity of

the Union to lapse into a remorseless revolution. The immediate and practical aspects of administration he kept constantly in view. Yet slavery, with its ambitious rivalry and dissensions, had caused this bloody struggle; and a deep, though undefined, hope increased among the Northern people that somehow, in God's providence, slavery and rebellion would perish together. Full abolition could only be secured by a constitutional amendment, and such amendment by the constitutional method was, in the present stage of sentiment, impossible. But emancipation by edict in aid of the war power against the rebellious and disloyal was held legitimate. In that respect Lincoln reserved strictly to himself the weighty initiation. His views varied, together with his policy, not because his purpose was fixed far in advance, but because his conscience advanced with that of the conservative people, whose gradual change of sentiment was like that which had brought their ancestors, in 1776, to throw off allegiance to the King, when resistance to bad measures was the cause of taking up arms. Fremont, at Missouri, had announced military emancipation too early, and the President overruled him. Hunter, a warm personal friend, issued, while commanding in South Carolina, a similar edict, which the President modified in 1862, publicly declaring that, as commander-in-chief, he reserved so momentous a de-

Tendencies to freedom.

Plan of compensated abolition.

cision to himself. While proclaiming this, he earnestly pressed his plan of compensated abolition upon the loyal slave States. On the 12th of July, at a conference held by his invitation at the White House, he once more, in a most impressive address, urged the border Representatives, now about to return home for the recess, to lay that plan before their several constituencies.

Palmerston's hostility to slavery.

There were signs this spring that a policy of emancipation would strengthen the Union cause in England. Weed wrote from abroad that Lord Palmerston's hostility to slavery was earnest and unchangeable. What with debates of the long session upon various phases of the slavery question, and the differing and often conflicting orders of the various commanders, some thought the government too fast, others too slow, in the new direction. In truth, the disposition grew in Congress to compel the President to proclaim emancipation. Slaves of disloyal persons in the Confederate States were declared emancipated upon coming within the Federal lines; all persons in the army and navy were prohibited from passing judgment upon the claims of slave masters. Much, in short, was done before adjournment toward authorizing the Union armies to grind negro vassalage under foot as they went forward. Yet Northern opinion constrained Congress from compelling the President upon the issue of proclaiming freedom to the slave.

Northern opinion.

A gloom had come over military operations after the bright harbinger of spring. Upon McClellan's repulse on the peninsula, had been arranged, with State governors, the new levy of three hundred thousand men. Lincoln, now left unfettered by Congress, brooded over the great question of declaring general emancipation through the whole insurrectionary region. Five days after the adjournment of the legislative branch he reached his conclusion, impelled by conscience and a military necessity. On Monday was held a Cabinet meeting for considering various stringent military measures, such as subsisting troops in the hostile territory, and employing negroes in the army and navy—projects presently embodied in general orders. On the next eventful day, July 22d, the subject was resumed; after which Lincoln read to his Cabinet the draught of a proclamation, declaring free the slaves of all States still in rebellion on the first of January ensuing; but commending once more to the loyal slave States his plan of compensated abolition. Brief memoranda of the occasion are extant; but all the President's advisers, except Seward and Welles, were taken by surprise, and bewilderment was shown at the magnitude of the project. This draught, which the President had prepared upon his own conviction and without the knowledge of his Cabinet, gave rise to various comments; the same hesitation and variance of views be-

Lincoln and his divided Cabinet.

ing visible here as among the people at large. Blair, who alone positively objected, declared it would cost the approaching elections. "Nothing, however, was offered," as Lincoln related afterward, "that I had not already fully anticipated and settled in my own mind, until Secretary Seward spoke. He said in substance, 'Mr. President, I approve of the proclamation, but I question the expediency of its issue at this juncture; the depression of the public mind, following upon recent reverses, might make it viewed as the last measure, a cry for help,—the government stretching forth its hands to Ethiopia, instead of Ethiopia stretching forth her hands to the government.' Hence, he advised deferring its issue until supported by some military success." The wisdom of that view struck the President with very great force; it was an aspect that with all his thought he had entirely overlooked, and so he put the document away, waiting for victory. Pope was defeated, we have seen, the last of August; but Antietam's victory furnished the occasion in September. After two months' intermission the President resumed the subject with his Cabinet; stating reverently that he had made the promise to himself and his Maker to issue that proclamation as soon as the rebel army was driven out of Maryland, and test God's favor to the act he proposed. The responsibility was now his own, and the

Seward's views.

Lincoln assumes the responsibility.

Cabinet officers, though not voting, promised each in turn his support. With general approval, a change or two was made in the original draught at Seward's suggestion; chiefly a promise to "maintain" the freedom which it recognized. The Cabinet meeting over, the great seal was affixed to this document at the State Department. The President signed it the same afternoon, and the Northern press the next morning sent it broadcast through the land. Such were the circumstances that ushered in, with characteristic caution, and upon due notice, the social regeneration of America; and the 1st of January, 1863, the promise "to recognize and maintain" took effect. Posterity will agree that Lincoln chose the right time for this becoming act of mercy, and showed consummate statesmanship both in his decision and the means for giving it effect.

THE BATTLE OF GETTYSBURG

(A.D. 1863)

JAMES SCHOULER

IGNORANT, as scarcely ever before, of his adversary's movements, and seriously hindered by the absence of his cavalry, Lee did not learn until the evening of the 28th that the Army of the Potomac had crossed into Maryland. Little more than this could he learn at all. He, as well as Meade, had prudently meant to avoid an open battle except under favorable conditions; yet, in spite of the precautions on either side, these two formidable armies rapidly approached one another like two thunderclouds from different points of the compass, all through the last day of the month of June; Longstreet and Hill marching east that day, through the mountains of Gettysburg, while Meade unconsciously headed toward them almost in a perpendicular direction. The most tremendous and the most significant open battle of the whole Civil War was historically the result of a collision of these two armies, simply accidental, while on the march. Neither Lee nor Meade made

Approach of hostile armies.

deliberate choice of the eventual fighting position.

Position of Gettysburg

Gettysburg—to the Southern cause "a glorious field of grief"—lies in a peaceful pastoral region, walled in on the west by the blue line of the South Mountain range, and studded throughout its landscape by lesser hills. Nearly of the same longitude as Washington, it is situated in Pennsylvania not far north of the Maryland border. Here the Chambersburg and Hagerstown roads cross one another and diverge; while a valley, highly cultivated, with grain fields and orchards, lies slumbering with thrifty farmhouses between two nearly parallel ranges of hills—Seminary Ridge on the west (near which stands a Lutheran seminary), and, on the southeast, Cemetery Ridge, one of whose hills is consecrated for burial purposes. This latter range begins in a bold and rocky cliff, called Culp's Hill, at whose southerly extremity towers a conical and commanding rock, Round Top, crowned with a smaller spur, called Little Round Top, which overlooks the surrounding country. Midway in the peaceful valley is a lower intermediate ridge, along which runs the road to Emmitsburg. Upon this natural theatre was fought the desperate three days' battle to be described, in the hot and exhausting weather of midsummer.

Meade's preparations.

Learning from Couch that Lee's army had turned away from the Susquehanna River,

Meade, before dawn of July 1st, arranged for a defensive line of battle along Pike Creek, there to await the enemy's approach. But Reynolds had gone leisurely on in advance, to occupy the obscure town of Gettysburg, having in command the 1st, 3d, and 11th corps, the left grand division of Meade's army. Buford, who had taken possession of this town with his cavalry the day before, and thrown out pickets, encountered on the Chambersburg road a fragment of the enemy's advancing host. He despatched the tidings at once to Reynolds, who dashed forward on horseback, on that memorable morning, with his 1st corps following fast on foot, and sent word for the rest of his command, now miles in the rear, to hasten up quickly. After an anxious survey with Buford from the belfry of the Lutheran seminary, Reynolds resolved upon the morning's work. Here a battle might well be risked; here the instant duty was to keep back that oncoming wave until Meade could mass his host to break it. With a higher mandate plain before his eyes, the letter of his written directions seems to have been disregarded. Heth's Confederate division approached in force from the west; and while Reynolds held it watchfully in check on the Chambersburg road, that devoted officer was shot dead by a bullet through his brain. His glory on this field was first and greatest, yet others were to win glory there before the fight

Reynolds' quick decision.

Reynolds holds Heth in check.

ended. Doubleday now took charge, with such of the 1st corps as had arrived, and the fighting began in earnest. From ten in the forenoon for three long hours the 1st corps alone, with Buford's cavalry, bore the brunt of the enemy's advance, and forced A. P. Hill to wait for Ewell. The Confederates, largely reinforced, were pressing hotly when, about two o'clock, Howard arrived with his 11th corps, and, by virtue of his rank, assumed direction. He deployed at once to hold the two western roads to the left, while on the right confronting Ewell's phalanx, which came into view on the road from Carlisle. But the Union line had extended too far; and Ewell, assailing it simultaneously in front and on the exposed flanks, won an easy victory; for in both numbers and position the Confederates had now the advantage. Howard's column was pressed back into the town and through it, closely pursued, and suffering much in wounded and captured. But before this misfortune, Howard had taken the precaution to secure Cemetery Hill, which made a strong refuge place for posting anew his retreating troops as they poured southward. At this juncture, and toward four in the afternoon, Hancock arrived on the scene, sent thither by Meade to assume command in consequence of the death of Reynolds, whose tidings reached him. Hancock's splendid presence at this discouraging moment was like that of another

Howard arrives.

Ewell's success.

Hancock assumes command.

army corps, and gave calmness and confidence to our exhausted soldiery. He checked the fighting and received the disorganized regiments as they arrived. Howard, though demurring at the authority given by Meade to one who was, in lineal rank, his junior, co-operated generously in restoring order. The two arranged together a new position on Cemetery Hill and along the Ridge, impregnable to further assault for the day, and covering Gettysburg and the roads from Baltimore and the South. Slocum now reached the scene with Sickles's dusty veterans of the 3d corps, who had been marching all day by the Emmitsburg road. To him, as ranking officer, the command was turned over, and Hancock galloped back to urge upon Meade the advantage of this new field of battle.

Slocum relieves Hancock.

Meade, while taken unawares, had not hesitated what course to pursue; and, though but three days in command of this great army, he relinquished one plan to take up another, and moved his whole force promptly to the rescue. All night, and by every road of approach, the Union troops came swarming in from the southward, and marched to their positions under the light of the full moon. Meade himself came upon the field at one o'clock the next morning, pale, hollow-eyed, worn with toil and loss of sleep, yet rising to the measure of his responsibilities.

Meade arrives on the field.

Lee, at the opposite entrance to Gettysburg,

had arrived on the 1st, in season to watch from Seminary Ridge the new position which his flying foe was taking. His mind was not yet made up to fight an offensive battle; for, impressed by the steadiness of this new alignment, he gave no order of attack to break up the Union preparations, but merely sent Ewell the suggestion to carry Cemetery Hill if he thought it practicable. Ewell, however, spent the afternoon in waiting to be reinforced; and a great Confederate opportunity was neglected. Lee's suspense need not be wondered at; for Longstreet, his second and his ablest adviser, urged him at this point to keep to his original plan, and, avoiding a pitched battle, march aside by the flank down to Frederick. "No," was Lee's response, "the enemy is there, and there I mean to attack him;" and, with signs of a great success in his grasp, the temptation to stay and fight the battle out proved irresistible. But as accident had lured him on to action, so action deferred lured him to a second day of loss, and that loss to a third day of irreparable slaughter. Possibly the danger of moving still further to the southeast influenced his fatal decision.*

Lee's hesitation.

Temptation proves fatal.

The sanguinary fight of the 2d did not commence until far into the afternoon. This July weather was hot and oppressive; many of the

* "In view of the valuable results," says Lee's dry report on this point, "that would ensue from the defeat of the army of General Meade, it was thought advisable to renew the attack."

troops just arrived on either side had borne a long and exhausting march; and doubtless the opposing commanders felt the onerous burden of initiating battle. Both Meade and Lee had planned an attack for an early hour of the morning; but the one abandoned that intention, waiting for another corps to arrive; while the other, partly for a corresponding reason, but more because Longstreet did not share his sanguine hopes, deferred giving immediate orders.* By afternoon Meade had posted three corps over Cemetery Ridge, under Slocum, Howard, and Hancock, the last named holding the crest with the 2d corps, while Sickles, with the 3d corps, gave support on the left, and the 5th corps formed the reserve on the right. Sedgwick and the 6th corps, whom Meade had also waited for, came in sight when the battle had begun, after a long night's march. About a mile distant, Lee's army swept in a wide curve from hills on the northwest of Gettysburg to the high ground in front of the Round Tops; Ewell holding the Confederate left, Hill the centre, while Longstreet's troops, which were the last to arrive, were posted on the extreme right.

The second day's fighting.

Little Round Top was the key to the Union position; and the enemy, concealing their movements in thick woods until the signal for assault was given, revealed themselves

* The delay was for Longstreet, who did not get McLaws's division until noon, nor had Pickett's yet arrived.

suddenly at four o'clock, with an outflanking line. Sickles held an advance position not intended by Meade, but too late to be rectified. Upon him, unsheltered, was made by Hood's division from Longstreet the first furious assault, Lee desiring that ground for his artillery in storming the higher crests beyond.* Here, for nearly two hours, raged a fierce and sanguinary conflict. Sickles, with one leg shot away, was borne from the field, and Birney fought desperately in his place; Humphreys was compelled by McLaws to retreat under a withering fire. But reinforcements, which Meade sent in good season, protected the withdrawal of that corps to a safer ground. Meantime came a close and bloody hand-to-hand fight for possession of Little Round Top, toward which Hood's troops had been stealthily climbing. Warren, chief of engineers, who was posted in this vicinity, pressed instantly to the scene of danger; and, after a fierce encounter, reinforced on either side, the enemy were driven down the precipitous slope and the crest was held securely. But this was done at a terrible sacrifice; and among young Union officers of promise who here gave their lives were Weed, Hazlitt, O'Rorke, and brave Strong Vincent, the first of all Union officers to reach the sum-

Second day at Gettysburg

* Sickles's true position had been intended for the extreme left near Hancock. He now stood near what was called the Peach Orchard, toward the Emmitsburg road.

mit. As twilight gathered, Humphreys's division advanced and recaptured the guns they had lost, and by nightfall the whole Union line from Round Top to Cemetery Ridge was held impregnable.

Lee had wished Ewell to assail the extreme Union right at Cemetery Hill while this contest went on, with Hill at the same time watching his chance to fall upon the centre. Ewell, in attempting to carry out his part of the plan, attacked the 11th corps with such energy that Howard was compelled to ask assistance, which Hancock rendered by despatching Carroll's brigade. The Confederates were driven from the hill; but later in the day, when the Union right was much depleted by the reinforcements hurried to Round Top, a line of intrenchments left here by Geary's division were carried by the Confederate General Johnson, who held the position all night. Artillery had taken part wherever it could, in a pell-mell fight which slackened and then ceased late in the evening.

Ewell's success.

The full-orbed moon was shining when Meade summoned a council of his chief officers, after the action was over, to decide whether to stay or withdraw. There was but one voice in the conference; for all present were in favor of fighting out the battle where they stood, awaiting an attack; and Meade adopted that opinion as his own. On the Confederate side was reached the same con-

The council of war.

clusion; for, whatever his earlier misgivings, Lee felt himself too strongly committed by the day's partial triumphs to retreat ignominiously. At a bloody cost he had gained the Emmitsburg road and ridges for his artillery, on one side, and planted himself within Federal intrenchments on the other.* Though not all the success he had hoped for, this was yet something; and, besides adding Pickett's strong division, newly arrived, to strengthen Longstreet, his centre was fresh and had scarcely as yet engaged at all. His army appeared in fine spirits, and the South Mountain defiles were close at hand, should retreat be necessary. The risks of manœuvring toward Baltimore and Washington, as Longstreet had advised, were greater now than on the day before; and so, putting aside with good humor the warning advice of his chief subordinate, he accepted the final gage of battle which Meade offered him.† Lee's decision.

Thursday, the 3d of July, dawned with that same bright summer weather, intensely hot, which invited inaction until the sun should pass its meridian. Meade, though uncertain of the issue, prepared for either fate with coolness and forethought. At sunrise he telegraphed to his general who commanded at

* Lee thought he had gained a success because he had taken ground from his foe and captured several field-pieces. Ib. 341 (Longstreet).

† Longstreet expressed his hopelessness of the attempt, but Lee gave him orders.

Frederick, to harass and annoy the enemy should they be driven to retreat, but in case discomfiture came to the Union army, then to interpose his force so as to protect Washington.* Upon Meade rested the earliest renewal of the fight, for it was needful to dislodge Johnson's intruders from the intrenchments they had gained at the right near Culp's Hill, and toward the Baltimore turnpike.† This was accomplished, after a desultory fight of several hours, beginning at early dawn; and then Geary's troops marched once more into their intrenchments to reoccupy them, and Lee's concert of plans was lost.‡

Third day at Gettysburg.

No general battle had been drawn on by this morning's operation, and noon approached with intense stillness in the adversary camp. But Lee had employed his entire forenoon in preparing for a last assault upon the Union lines; this time making Cemetery Hill the crest to be carried, and masking his preparations as far as possible under cover of the woods and the crest of Seminary Ridge.

Preparations for a last assault.

To the faithful though unwilling Longstreet was committed a task not unlike that which Burnside had essayed at Fredericksburg; and Lee's proud disdain of Northern soldiery, as compared with his own, reached now its retri-

* And to be prepared for either contingency.

† Had Lee thus penetrated and got across the Baltimore pike, there would have been danger.

‡ Where Johnson was driven out a forest of dead trees marked the place later, killed like soldiers by the bullets.

bution. For this final onslaught the post of honor was given to Pickett's division of the Virginia chivalry, supported by Wilcox, Pettigrew, and Trimble, whose three fine divisions belonged to A. P. Hill's command. The midday silence was broken by a simultaneous discharge of 130 cannon planted on the Confederate ridge, to whose terrific uproar half the number responded on the Union side. Dense clouds of smoke settled over the valley, through which the shells went hissing and screaming to and fro. This tentative artillery duel, whose damage done was trifling in comparison with the prodigious noise and flame, occupied about an hour. The Union lines stood firm as before, and even firmer, and no spot showed weakness for the foe to break. Obedient to Longstreet's orders,* as the black canopy rolled away, Pickett valiantly led forth his troops from behind a ridge, where they had lain concealed, and a column of some 17,000 men moved wedge-like over the green landscape of waving grain and stubble, irradiated by the beaming sun. On they came, in full sight from Cemetery Ridge, for nearly a mile; but before they had advanced halfway across the valley they bore off toward the centre and in the direction of Hancock's front. And now, while the Union artillery, which Lee had hoped to silence, opened from right to left upon the forlorn column with a terribly

The artillery duel.

* Given with a heavy heart.

Pickett's charge.

destructive fire, Pickett's assaulting force of five thousand, thinning in ranks at every step, approached the long bristling Union line, which was drawn up firm on the heights. Pettigrew's division, supporting it on the left, was attacked by Alexander Hays, of Hancock's corps, with such fury that the ranks wavered and broke, and all courageous who were left alive mingled with the troops of Pickett. At an advanced point, where part of Webb's small force held a stone fence, that barrier was carried with yells of triumph; but

Repulse and retreat.

Webb fell back among his guns, and, aided from right and left by Union brigades and regiments, which rushed valorously to the scene, a din and confusion arose, men fighting and overturning one another like wild beasts, until, at a little clump of woods, where Cushing, a Union lieutenant of artillery, fired a shot as he dropped, and the Confederate General Armistead, foremost in this assault, fell while waving his hat upon his sword-point, the last invading surge expended itself. More than two thousand men had been killed or wounded in thirty minutes. Pickett now gave the order to retreat, and as his bleeding and shattered force receded in confusion, the Union soldiery sprang forward, enveloping on all sides the Confederate ranks, and swept in prisoners and battle ensigns. Wilcox, too, whose supporting column on the other side had become isolated, had to cut his way out in retreat, forced

by a Union brigade, while batteries from above on Little Round Top rained down iron hail. While this main battle raged, sharp cavalry combats took place upon both flanks of the hostile armies.

With the repulse of Pickett's splendid but impracticable charge, the third day's fight of Gettysburg, the briefest of all in duration, and yet in proportion the bloodiest, came to an end. Lee, shaken by the fearful consequences, took candidly the blame of this futile effort upon himself, and with soothing words drew off to save the remnant of his army. Meade, from the opposite heights, made no counter-charge, but comprehending quite slowly the magnitude of his victory, which he described in despatches as a "handsome repulse," refrained from pressing forcibly his advantage. For this there was prudent reason to one so new in command. The anxious strain of those hot summer days had been most severe; and Meade's own losses were so enormous that adequate thought could hardly be given to the corresponding harm inflicted upon the enemy. Of Union generals most tried and trusted, Reynolds lay dead, while Sickles, Hancock, Gibbon, Doubleday, Warren, and Webb were all wounded, unable to take part in a pursuit.*

Lee withdraws his shattered army.

Union losses.

The 4th of July was passed in last offices

* A large preponderance of military testimony, however, Union and Confederate, goes to show that Meade should have pushed his advantage at Gettysburg after Pickett's bloody repulse with more energy than he displayed.

to the ghastly heaps of dead; but Lee's request for a truce and exchange of prisoners Meade properly declined under the circumstances. A violent rainstorm was further excuse for Meade's inaction, and, when night came, a military council advised him to remain where he was, keeping a close watch upon his adversary. On the morning of the 5th the Confederates were found to be in full retreat through the mountain passes, and Meade pursued southward to intercept their passage of the Potomac. Now came the most earnest injunctions from Washington to give the foe neither rest nor respite; and Lee's position was truly critical when, on reaching the Potomac, he found his pontoons partly destroyed and that river so swollen by rains as not to be fordable. While Lee intrenched, waiting for the river to fall, Meade, scarce a mile distant, prepared from the 10th to the 12th to fight him; but in another council of war, most unfortunately called, from which his best advisers were necessarily absent, Meade found his own opinion overborne and unhappily yielded. With nothing more than a reconnoissance meanwhile for annoyance, Lee crossed with his whole force after the Potomac had fallen so as to be fordable, and on the morning of the 14th he was safe once more upon the Virginia side.

Meade's fruitless pursuit.

Escape of Lee's army.

Meade's noble success at Gettysburg—where for the first time reserves in this army

were put forward in battle at the right time and place—won him a promotion to brigadier-general in the regular army, and a public gratitude imperishable. But so keen was the administration's disappointment that the full harvest of victory had not been reaped, that a despatch from Halleck, harshly commenting on Lee's escape, provoked Meade to tender his recall. Such return for his inestimable service was not to be thought of, and Meade remained in command. But a phrase in his general order of the 4th, which announced the enemy "utterly baffled and defeated," had been to Lincoln a foreboding reminder of Antietam, for it spoke of "driving the invader from our soil" as the supreme effort requisite. "Will our generals," he inquired, "never get that idea out of their heads? The whole country is our soil." And he regretted that he had not himself gone to the front and issued personally an order to attack Lee vigorously on the retreat, regardless of all military councils. But time and reflection restored his confidence in Meade as brave and highly deserving, if not faultless. For at Gettysburg, like Flodden's fatal field, the right arm of the South was broken, as all now concede; and that battle, one of the most destructive of modern times, portended the fate of this insurrection. In that first and only shock of arms upon free Northern soil, two leading generals on the Union side besides Meade himself fought for

Meade's reward.

Lincoln's annoyance and regret.

his native State,* and mighty feats of valor performed on either side marked the prolonged encounter.†

[In 1864, a short war against Denmark by Austria and Prussia ends in the spoliation of the former. Sherman marches through Georgia and captures Savannah, and Thomas is successful at Nashville. Grant fights the terrible battles of the Wilderness against Lee, the fighting lasting a month. Lincoln is re-elected President. In 1865, Transylvania is united to Hungary. Richmond is captured and Lee capitulates at Appomattox. Lincoln is murdered. Chili and Peru, allied, make war against Spain. General Booth starts the Salvation Army in East London. Lister introduces antiseptic surgery in Glasgow.]

Sherman in Georgia.

Lincoln murdered.

* Meade, Reynolds, and Hancock were all born in Pennsylvania.

† At least 70,000, from first to last, fought under Lee at Gettysburg, and 90,000, or somewhat more, under Meade. The number varied from day to day. On the Union side were lost in killed, wounded, and missing, 23,003; on the Confederate side, 20,451—a nearly equal loss in proportion. But, with a diminishing military population, the South suffered by far the greater exhaustion. This "may be regarded as the most eventful struggle of the war," says Jefferson Davis

ANÆSTHETICS AND ANTISEPTICS

ALFRED RUSSEL WALLACE

A BRIEF notice must also be given of two discoveries in practical physiology, which have perhaps done more to benefit mankind than those great mechanical inventions and philosophical theories which receive more general admiration. These are, the use of anæsthetics in surgical operations, and the antiseptic treatment of wounds.

First use of anæsthetics.

Anæsthetics were first used in dentistry in 1846, the agent being ether; while chloroform, for more severe surgical operations, was adopted in 1848; and though their primary effect is only to abolish pain, they get rid of so much nervous irritation as greatly to aid in the subsequent recovery. The use of anæsthetics thus renders it possible for many operations to be safely performed which, without it, would endanger life by mere shock to the system; while to the operating surgeon it gives confidence, and enables him to work more deliberately and carefully from the knowledge that the longer time occupied will not increase

Introduction of antiseptic treatment.

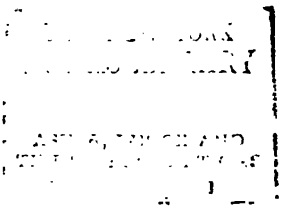
the suffering of the patient or render his recovery less probable. Nitrous-oxide gas is now chiefly used in dentistry or very short operations, sulphuric ether for those of moderate length, while chloroform is usually employed in all the more severe cases, since the patient can by its use be kept in a state of insensibility for an hour or even longer. There is, however, some danger in its use to persons with weak heart or of great nervous sensibility, and the patient in such cases may die from the effects of the anæsthetic alone.

Even more important was the introduction of the antiseptic treatment in 1865, which, by preventing the suppuration of incised or wounded surfaces, has reduced the death-rate for serious amputations from forty-five per cent to twelve per cent, and has besides rendered possible numbers of operations which would have been certainly fatal under the old system. I remember my astonishment when, soon after the introduction of the practice, I was told by an eminent physiologist of the new method of performing operations, in which the freshly cut surfaces could be left exposed to the air without dressings of any kind, and would soon heal. The antiseptic treatment was the logical outcome of the proof that suppuration of wounds and all processes of fermentation and putrefaction were not due to normal changes either in living or dead tissues, but were produced by the growth and

LONGSTREET'S REPULSE AT GETTYSBURG

From the painting by Walker

—Vol. VII, page 2201



the rapid multiplication of minute organisms, especially of those low fungoid groups termed Bacteria. If, therefore, we can adopt measures to keep away or destroy these organisms and their germs, or in any way prevent their increase, injured living tissues will rapidly heal, while dead animal matter can be preserved unchanged almost indefinitely. In the case of wounds and surgical operations this is effected by means of a weak solution of corrosive-sublimate, in which all instruments and everything that comes in contact with the wound are washed, and by filling the air around the part operated on with a copious spray of carbolic acid. Cold has a similar effect in preserving meat; while the process of tinning various kinds of food depends for its success on the same principle, of first killing all bacteria or other germs by heating the filled tins above the boiling point, and then keeping out fresh germs by air-tight fastening.

Antiseptics.

Preserving meat.

The combined use of anæsthetics and antiseptics has almost robbed the surgeon's knife of its terrors, and has enabled the most deeply seated organs to be laid open and operated upon with success. As a result, more lives are probably now saved by surgery than by any other branch of medicine, since in the treatment of disease there has been comparatively small progress except by trusting more to the healing powers of nature, aided by rest,

warmth, pure air, wholesome food, and as few drugs as possible.

The Seven Weeks' War.

[In 1866, the Seven Weeks' War breaks out between Austria and Prussia. Queen Isabella of Spain appoints a new Ministry under Narvaez and the Cortes is dissolved. The Turks suppress a revolt in Crete, which has proclaimed its union with Greece. The Fenians invade Canada. The Dred Scott decision is cancelled by an addition to the Fourteenth Amendment. The Atlantic cable is laid under the direction of William Thomson.]

LAYING OF THE ATLANTIC CABLE

(A.D. 1866)

W. H. RUSSELL

SEVEN years ago* a metal strand, enveloped in gutta-percha, was laid in the bed of the Atlantic from Ireland to Newfoundland. For a few weeks the obedient current, creeping feebly through its narrow viaduct, flickered from end to end, and moved the magnet to speak. But waning in force, and flowing from out unseen wounds into the night of waters, the electric fluid, which is the vital blood of telegraphy, died out altogether in mid-ocean. The needle made no sign. How or why this came to pass no one can say. All that is known may be summed up in the fact that there was a fatal fault, or dead earth, in the insulating cover of the copper wires, and that the electricians, detecting its influence on the escape of the current, endeavored to stimulate the moribund body by augmenting the power of the batteries. We all know that lightning, as a general rule, takes the nearest course between two points, but the law is influenced by sur-

Line laid in 1857.

* 1857.

A "fault" discovered in the wire.

rounding conditions. When a fault occurs in a cable, for instance, some of the current escapes into the sea, and some of it travels along the wire to the terminus. The force of the current is regulated by a well-defined law. When the fault is so great as to allow the copper to come in contact with a perfect conductor, all the electricity marches through the dead earth, and is lost. The operators in those days, seeing the indications of the needle weakened, thought they would make up for the consequences of the fault by increasing the force of the current. They multiplied their plates and soon brought the disease to a climax, and aggravated the causes of death to rapid issue. The last word traced by the hand of the deceased cable was "Forward." The message came from the New World to the Old, and it has been accepted as a legacy by the executors. Now, that cable of 1858, though it had a short life, and not a very merry or useful one, was a great fact. It was a demonstration forever of two matters concerning which men might otherwise have been contending fiercely—one was that a cable could be laid in the depths of the sea from Ireland to Newfoundland; the other, that messages could be sent with remunerative rapidity from one end of it to the other. The trial of 1857 failed so completely that, but for the renewed effort and its successful issue in 1858, there would have been doubters up to

Short life of the first cable.

this day whom the experiment just concluded so abruptly would not have converted to a sound belief as to the actual practicability of laying the cable. There are people now who say they have a strong suspicion no message ever went through the cable of 1858 at all. The interchange of civilities between the Queen and President Buchanan—the last of the Washington Doges—was, they aver, "a got-up thing." There are hundreds of messages—copies and originals—to be seen; but the *doctores dubitantium* do not care to see them, will go on shaking their heads till their tongues cease to wag. The cable failed then, and the anticipations of the great benefits to both countries from a rapid interchange of ideas and news were not realized.

Genuineness of messages doubted.

It was ten or twelve years, however, after submarine cables had been in common use in European seas, that one was laid under water, from one point of land to another of the American continent; and it was an Englishman, Mr. Gisborne, who gave the first impulse to the idea of an Atlantic cable, and who actually connected Newfoundland with the main by a submarine telegraph. The original project was to run a line of steamers from Galway to Newfoundland, and to use the submarine line for the transmission of news to Boston and New York. The legislatures of the British provinces encouraged it by extraordinary charters and privileges, which drew from the

Mr Gisborne's early success.

home government an intimation that they would not sanction similar monopolies. The promoters soon exhausted their money, and Mr. Gisborne repaired to New York to interest capitalists in the undertaking. There he met Mr. Cyrus Field, who, thinking over the subject, was led to inquire if it would not be possible to lay a cable between Ireland and America.

Cyrus Field interested.

After the breakdown of 1858, the enterprise failed out of men's minds, but the Atlantic Telegraph Company still existed, and Mr. Field never ceased to agitate by every means in his power the great question of his life. It was, however, British capital which furnished the means for the last expedition, just as it was British manufacturers who made the cable, and British ships, sailors, and engineers who were engaged in laying it. Well, it was a failure—that can not be controverted; but it was one of those glorious failures which mark out the road to ultimate success. It marked out many places on the map of electrical discovery which were hazy and uncertain.

Results of the failure of 1858.

When the *Great Eastern* started, it was averred by the first authorities that want of success could only arise from some source then overlooked and unsuspected. Alarmist theories respecting the strength of the ship herself, and the wanton appetites of sharks and whales, were propounded without any foundation; but no one seemed to apprehend the

The *Great Eastern*.

least danger from the wire in the external coating of the cable, from which, eventually, all the mischief arose.

Now it made a very long story in the papers—all that was done and suffered. Put it into the nutshell of a page, it is this:—First fault discovered on 24th of July when we were in 400 fathoms water; more than six hours elapsed before the cable was cut; two hours more before the end so cut was hauled in over the bows; twenty-four hours (9.30 A.M. on July 25th) before the fault came on board; in five hours more the cable was let run out astern again. Now in all these operations the strain never exceeded 35 cwt. at paying-out machine and 36 cwt. in picking up. This great result gave all on board a ruinous confidence. To pick up the cable so easily was to reduce the operation to a *facillimum*. Then on July 29th, when the second great impediment took place, not much more than two hours elapsed between the electricians' warning and the cutting of the cable; but twelve hours rolled on before the end was got in over the bows, and nearly six hours more was spent in picking up till the fault (dead earth) came on board. More than eleven hours were devoted to preparing the cable for its next committal astern to the deep. During the second operation the strain at the stern dynamometer, or paying-out apparatus, was the same as it was on the occasion of the first fault, and it

First fault discovered.

Ruinous confidence.

did not exceed 50 cwt. at the dynamometer in the bows while the picking-up was going on. Third and fatal fault, August 2d; not more than two hours elapsed between discovery of fault and cutting of cable, and in an hour and a half the end was over the bows and picking-up commenced; but owing to the lie of the ship and the drift of the wind, and possibly of the current, the strain rose up to 50 cwt. and then to 64 cwt. In about five hours 2.04 miles nautical had been picked up, and then the cable parted and sank *in profundis*. Now the breaking strain of the cable is 7.75 tons, so that unless there was an exceeding violence in a pick or considerable deterioration from chafing there was no reason why it should have parted in the course of picking-up. Subsequently the grappling experiments afforded satisfactory evidence that the depth of water under the ship was somewhat less than two nautical miles when the cable broke. At that time there were 1,082 miles of cable left on board, and the ship had receded about two miles toward the last. Just 1,186 miles of cable were out in a straight line, and the distance from Valentia was 1,063 miles, and from Heart's Content 603 miles. The public who are not shareholders were probably more interested in the attempts to pick up the cable than in the proceedings connected with laying down and recovering it. When the grapnel was let go

Position of the break.

there was little expectation that it would catch anything; the greatest strain denoted while paying out the line 2,500 feet long was 80 cwt., which was indicated at 10.20 P.M. of August 2d, but at 6.45 A.M. next morning, as they were hauling it in, the strain rose to 85 cwt., and when soon afterward it increased to 90 cwt., the spur wheel of the machine broke. That strain was due to the rapid motion of the picking-up drum and the great friction; because when the capstan was used in lieu of the machinery and engines, the dynamometer index fell to 60 cwt., and finally the swivel bolt failed and down went 1,400 fathoms of wire buoy rope and the grapnel and cable held by it. On the 7th, after another grapnel with 2,400 feet of rope had been down more than five hours, the strain began to rise from 50 cwt. to 58 cwt., and finally to 66 cwt., and the ship's head came round to the wind. In an hour after we began to heave up, but the strain did not increase materially for a couple of hours, when it rose to 67 cwt., and soon afterward to 75 cwt. It stood for more than two hours at 75 cwt., then ran up to 78 cwt., finally to 80 cwt., and then the swivel of a shackle broke on the capstan, and another grapnel and mass of wire rope were lost. This occurred about four and a half miles from the end of the cable in lat. 51° 25′, long. 38° 56′, bearing S. 14 E. When the fouled grapnel was over with 2,460 feet, on August 10th, the

Strength of strain used.

highest strain as the ship drifted was 56 cwt.; and it never increased in the picking-up beyond 70 cwt., from which it fell in eight hours to 25 cwt. till the grapnel was hauled in. On the last attempt the strain was at 65 cwt. when picking-up began, and ran up to 90 cwt. in two hours and a half, and in half an hour more was at 100 cwt., when the last rope broke.

The course of the *Great Eastern.*

The course on which the ship was kept was an arc of the great circle, passing through Valentia and Heart's Content, which is only some 16 miles shorter than the line on Mercator's projection. It possesses the advantage, however, of running over known soundings, along the course of what is called the Atlantic plateau, which presents a surface of ooze beneath a depth of water varying from 1,700 fathoms to 2,400 fathoms. The deepest part, therefore, is about two and a half nautical miles (2,000 yards each) deep. No one knows anything very positively about the ocean at these great depths. It is urged that there must be utter darkness there, but then starfish with traces of color have been taken up by sounding apparatus; and if they come up from the bottom, it is inferred there must be some rays of light penetrating there, or the colors would not exist. The pressure of the water itself is very much exaggerated, but it may be fairly assumed that it is very obscure down there, and that if anything can exist at all it must

No certain knowledge of the ocean's greatest depths.

be very dull living. When the substance called ooze came up on the grapnel line of the *Great Eastern,* from a depth of nearly two miles, it was simply a light-colored mud, like that which a heavy shower makes in the streets of London.

[In 1867, there is an abortive Fenian rising in Great Britain. The North German Federation is established. Parliamentary government with two houses is established in Austria. The Dominion of Canada is formed, a Governor-General appointed, and a Federal Parliament meets at Ottawa. The United States buys Alaska from Russia. In 1868, Queen Isabella of Spain flees to France. Congress passes the Force Laws against the Ku Klux and other secret societies. An expedition sent to Abyssinia successfully rescues English prisoners. Bokhara and Samarcand become dependent on Russia.]

The United States buys Alaska.

THE EXPULSION OF QUEEN ISABELLA

(A.D. 1868)

MARTIN A. S. HUME

A NEW Cortes was to be elected at the end of 1863, and in its manifesto the government signified its intention of allowing a fair proportion of both parties to be elected and to return to the system of party government which the Union Liberal had destroyed. But at the same time they forbade any but electors to attend political meetings. There was nothing very new in this, for it had been done before, but the advanced Liberals made it their excuse for retiring altogether from the contest, and abandoning open political action. This meant, sooner or later, a Liberal revolution, and so it proved. The advanced Liberals threw upon the Queen the odium of their retirement. She had, they said, refused to dissolve Parliament for a moderate Liberal Government, in order to discredit the party, and had dissolved Cortes without difficulty at the bidding of a ministry whose tendency was Conservative. It was clear then, they asserted, that while Isabel reigned no Lib-

Retirement of the Liberals.

eral ministry would be allowed to govern, whatever professions of attachment she might make to them for her own objects.

Programme of Mons and Canovas.

The retirement of the Liberals deprived the elections of all interest, and the Government party of cohesion and authority; the result being the accession of a more strongly Conservative ministry under Arrazola, which, however, fell after a few days on their demand for another dissolution; when they were succeeded by a semi-Liberal combination headed by Mons and Canovas, whose programme was purity of election, loyalty to the Constitution (of 1845), and greater freedom of the press. But it was clear to all observers by this time that parliamentary government had broken down. The unblushing manipulation of elections, and the Queen's erratic exercise of her prerogative of dissolution, with the retirement of the Liberals, had turned the whole business into a discredited farce, of which all honest men were tired.

Meddling of the King Consort

The impatience of the country was still further aroused by the meddling of the King-Consort, who had gone to Paris to return the visit of the Empress Eugénie, and on some inducement never understood had entered into an undertaking with Louis Napoleon for the recognition of Victor Emmanuel as King of Italy, and the return to Spain of the detested Cristina. This neither Isabel nor the Government could stand, and the latter retired; the

Queen at her wits' end, then consulting O'Donnell, who recommended the nomination of a purely Conservative ministry, to which he promised his support in order to hold democracy in check. This, of course, meant Narvaez, who formed a ministry with Gonzales Brabo at the Home Office, but refused O'Donnell's proffered co-operation.

Narvaez forms a ministry.

The Liberals, now under the leadership of Prim, for old Espartero had finally retired, still stood aloof; and the cloud of coming revolution loomed blacker than ever. The sale of the mortmain properties, which had supplied O'Donnell with abundant funds for several years, had now nearly come to an end, and money was scarce again; the Queen surrendered three-quarters of the royal patrimony to meet national expenditure, but it was all in vain, for the Government grew more unpopular every day. Again Narvaez's favorite remedies, the gag and the stick, were used ruthlessly; Castelar was dismissed from his professorship and the Rector of Madrid University deprived of his post, peaceful citizens were trampled on and killed by soldiers,* elected town councils were arbitrarily dismissed and replaced by nominated bodies, and in the

Liberals stand aloof.

The Queen is alarmed.

* The terrible scenes of slaughter and outrage upon inoffensive people for the simple purpose of infusing terror, on the night of Saint Daniel, April 10, 1865, in Madrid, must be laid at the door of Gonzales Brabo alone. Narvaez was ill and failing, and was not at this juncture in favor of the iron tyranny of his colleague.

meanwhile underground conspiracy spread its fibres throughout Spain, Prim being the motive power of the coming revolt.

The Queen took fright and summoned O'Donnell in June, 1865, to try and win back the Liberals to parliamentary action, and he formed a government for the purpose, with Posada Herrera and Canovas as members. But Prim, Sagasta—editor of the *Iberia*—and the rest of the Liberals resisted all attempts to entice them into the net again. In vain a Liberal policy was followed; Italy was recognized, reduction of the franchise and electoral purity promised, the Bleeding Nun, Sister Patrocinio, and the Queen's confessor, Father Claret, were once more banished; other personages even more objectionable were sent away from the palace, and Prim was ostentatiously courted, notwithstanding his known disaffection. But it was too late, for the Queen grew daily more divorced from her people as the scandals about her increased, for the Liberals, who were formerly her champions in this respect, were silent now.

Power of Prim.

All through the autumn of 1865 cholera raged in Madrid, and risings, small but significant, took place in various parts of the country, the Queen in the meanwhile resentfully remaining in retirement contrary to her usual custom when her people were in trouble. A military rising was planned by Prim for January, 1866, but the affair missed fire

Cholera and rebellion.

Prim plans a military rising.

through ill direction; and of the large force which promised aid only two regiments of cavalry joined him at Aranjuez. Followed by the Government troops, he escaped to Portugal, and the failure of this widespread conspiracy, which was revolutionary like that of 1854, but not anti-dynastic, sealed the fate of Isabel's throne.

Prim continued to conspire from his exile in France, but he no longer shut his eyes to the fact that the success of a military revolt was not now possible, and if a popular movement accompanied it, the result, to use his own words, would be "to throw the throne out of the window." He faced this possibility, and organized a great rising of troops, in union with the democrats and Liberal civilians, to start from Valladolid in May, and to spread along the whole line between Madrid and the French frontier, the principal active agents being the non-commissioned officers of the various regiments. After several false alarms and much disagreement, the artillery sergeants in the barracks of San Gil in Madrid revolted on the 22d of June. They had not intended to kill their officers, but on the resistance of the latter they did so; and followed by 1,200 men with thirty pieces of artillery, posted themselves at strategic points of the city. The troops which remained loyal, however, under O'Donnell and Serrano, overcame the mutineers in the Puerta del Sol and at the barracks,

Revolt of sergeants.

with terrible slaughter, after ten hours' fighting. The civilians who held barricades were more easily defeated; and the simultaneous risings in Valladolid and elsewhere melted away when the disaster of Madrid was known. The slaughter of the prisoners horrified humanity; the constitutional guarantees were suspended, and a reign of terror was established at the bidding of the palace clique that disgusted even O'Donnell, grim old soldier though he was.*

Slaughter of prisoners

For a time, thanks mainly to O'Donnell's energy, Isabel's inevitable fall had been delayed, but the besotted reactionaries who were dominant in the palace could not forgive the marshal for his insistence on the recognition of Italy and his coquetting with liberalism; and on July 10, 1866, he understood by the Queen's attitude toward him that his position was undermined, and for the last time he threw up his post. As he left the misguided woman, the last prop that sustained her throne crumbled. Swearing never to cross the threshold of the palace again while Isabel II. reigned, he turned his back on Spain to tread its soil no more, for before the end of the following year the descendant of the great Ulster-

O'Donnell departs.

* He is said to have replied to a courtier who urged that more sergeants should be shot: "But does not this lady (*i.e.*, the Queen) understand that if we shoot all the soldiers we catch, the blood will rise up to her own chamber and drown her?" There were sixty-six executions, but it is difficult to believe the assertion that the Queen herself was not on the side of mercy.

man, O'Donnell the Red, slept in his splendid tomb at the Atocha.

Narvaez and Gonzales Brabo came back again, but with somewhat chastened hearts. They promised oblivion and forgiveness and the Liberals came out of their hiding; but the palace clique, with the Marquis of Orovio, General Calonge, and other extreme reactionaries, forced the hand even of Gonzales Brabo, who could only privately advise the betrayed Liberals to fly before it was too late. The result was an exodus of all those who had ever taken part in Liberal movements, and the Government was irresistibly swept along the current of reaction until its decrees became such as would have shamed Fernando VII.

Flight of the Liberals

All legality was trampled under foot, all guarantees forgotten, all liberty crushed. Taxes were extorted in advance, municipalities dissolved, the electoral laws altered by decree, the press and speech, public and private, suppressed. Dismay, almost panic, reigned supreme; ruined shopkeepers put up their shutters in every town, merchants closed their counting-houses, money wellnigh disappeared from circulation—for it will be recollected that even in London at the time the Bank rate was ten per cent—and the great cities of Spain were like communities in mourning. The more moderate members of the Cortes attempted to petition the Queen for redress, but the Captain-General of Mad-

The general panic.

rid trampled upon "the rights" of Parliament and shut the doors against the members; the president, Rios Rosas, and the permanent committee being banished. General Serrano, a duke and grandee of Spain, the Queen's earliest friend, personally dared to remonstrate with her; and he, too, was driven into exile to join the conspirators who were already perfecting their plans in France, Belgium, and England.

Under these circumstances the new Cortes, meeting earlier in 1867, was a farce. Canovas del Castillo and a few other Conservatives vigorously opposed the insensate tyranny of the Government, but without effect; official senators who dared to vote against the Government were dismissed, and Gonzales Brabo, with a parliamentary ability which has rarely been equalled, made the worse appear the better reason, and obtained for himself—an unpopular civilian—a practical dictatorship. The new Cortes.

In the meanwhile the exiles were not entirely united. The central direction of the revolution was in Brussels under Prim, but a republican organization, with Pi y Margall and Castelar, met in Paris, while several friends of Prim were in London. From the first the difficulty was what could be devised to replace the present *régime*. "Down with the Bourbons!" was the popular cry; but Prim and Olozaga would not have the question prejudged: all must be left for the elected of the

people to decide after the success of the revolution was attained. This was Olozaga's policy, and was no doubt considered wise in order to unite all the discontented under one banner; but it was a fatal mistake, as events proved, for it only delayed division to a time when division was destructive. Efforts were made to enlist the name of old Espartero in the coming revolution; but he had done with politics, and refused his countenance, and the extreme democratic party and the republicans were far from unanimous in aiding Prim without knowing what was to follow.

Olozaga's policy.

In these circumstances the latter could only look to his own friends for funds and could barely collect enough for the humblest preparations. When, at length, in accordance with the plan agreed upon, he entered the port of Valencia from Marseilles in July of 1867, he found that his promise to abolish conscription had offended the officers upon whom he depended; and he had to return to France unsuccessful. Simultaneous risings took place in Cataluña, Aragon, Valencia, and Castile; but they all failed, for there was no united plan of proceeding, and no definite understanding as to the final object. Manifestoes and counter-manifestoes rained plentifully. The Government called the revolutionists perjured traitors, and these retorted with accusations of tyranny and oppression; but it was now evident that Prim alone had not com-

Prim's unsuccessful attempts.

mand of sufficient resources or prestige to succeed, and it was necessary to form fresh combinations.

Don Carlos, ever on the lookout for a chance, approached Sagasta and Prim, who was in London, and the former had a long interview with Cabrera; but though the Carlists were pliable, Prim put his foot down heavily, and the suggested fusion fell through. A more promising recruit was found in General Serrano; and with him a more powerful auxiliary still, who was able to provide what was required more than anything else—namely, money. The Duke of Montpensier, whose marriage with Isabel's sister had caused so much heart-burning, had sunk into political insignificance with his father's dethronement and the rise of Louis Napoleon; but he had lived a peaceful, happy, and respectable life with his family, managing thriftily his wife's vast property in Andalusia. He was, however, like most of his family, a man of business; and when it became evident that his sister-in-law's throne was to go begging, he apparently thought that his wife and children's chance of obtaining it should not be neglected. He was excessively rich and could afford to risk something for such a prize; but he was frugal and undertook but grudgingly to finance the revolution.*

Don Carlos.

The Duke of Montpensier.

* Prim wanted from £40,000 to £60,000 for the revolution, and when Montpensier sent him £4,000 to London by Señor

What conditions he made with Serrano and Admiral Topete and what pledges they gave him are still a mystery, but it is certain that Prim declined to bind himself beyond the overthrow of the existing state of things and the election of a Constituent Cortes. Out of this tacit, if not expressed, difference between the leaders of the revolution, the whole of the subsequent trouble arose. The nation was not in a condition to be able to choose calmly and judiciously its own institutions, and it was the duty of those who overturned the old order of things to have another ready to replace it with a strong hand, if necessary, to impose what they deemed best. Montpensier, it may be granted, was a foreigner and unpopular, but his wife was not; and they were both sensible and of good repute, and would have been, at all events, preferable to the chaos which followed the revolution.

Death of Narvaez.

Narvaez died in April, 1868, and Gonzales Brabo, Orovio, and Marfori* (Marquis of

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Mazo for the purpose, Prim refused to undertake a rising for such a sum. The Duke subsequently contributed £4,000 more, so far as is known, but probably a much larger sum was provided secretly by him through other channels, especially for the rising of the fleet.

* This person had been an actor and was the son of an Italian cook. He was soon withdrawn from the ministry to take the place of superintendent of the royal household, a position which brought him into constant contact with the Queen, who was much attached to him. But for Isabel's indignant refusal to dismiss him from her side at the critical moment of the revolution, when her return to Madrid was contemplated, her crown might even yet have been saved.

Loja), the Queen's great friend, formed a ministry pledged to utter reaction and undisguised tyranny. An attempt of the Cortes to meet in session was violently repressed, and all the leaders of opinion not favorable to the ministry were arrested and banished, among whom were Generals Serrano, Dulce, Cordoba, Zabala, Serrano-Bedoya, Caballero de Rodas, Hoyas, and Letona, and Rios Rosas, the President of the Cortes, while the Duke and Duchess of Montpensier were deported to Lisbon.

Arrest of leaders.

In the critical situation the Government was unwise enough to allow the Queen and her family—accompanied by Marfori, chief of the palace—to go to Lequetio, on the Biscay coast, for sea-bathing, and while she was there, on the 19th of September, 1868, Rear-Admiral Topete, in command of the squadron in Cadiz Bay, raised the flag of revolt. He had long been distrusted by the local governor, and only shortly before his declaration many arrests had been made among the men in garrison in Cadiz; but his cleverly worded manifesto denouncing the tyranny of the Government and calling for a Constituent Cortes and a return to an honest parliamentary *régime,* fell like a bombshell in the ranks of reaction. This was the spark which all Spain was waiting for, and it caught fuel that blazed out irresistibly.

Isabel goes to Lequetio.

Prim, Sagasta, Paul y Angulo, and others, had embarked at Southampton on the 12th in the steamer *Delta,* and had landed at Gib-

raltar on the 17th, sailing thence on a steam yacht belonging to Mr. Bland to join Topete at Cadiz. Prim found the Admiral, whom he did not know, strongly in favor of the Duchess of Montpensier as constitutional Queen with Serrano as leader of the rising. With regard to the latter, Prim easily agreed, for it was obvious that he was not powerful enough in the army to head a successful national revolt, but on the point of sovereignty he would not move from his principle of leaving everything to a Constituent Cortes; and with this, Topete, who was no politician, had to be contented. As neither Serrano nor the exiled generals from the Canaries had yet arrived, however, and Topete dared no longer delay, Prim was appointed to the interim command; and the citizens of Cadiz were delighted, on the morning of the 19th of September, to see the ships of the squadrons dressed with flags, and to hear the cheers of the crews, the Hymn of Riego, and the thundering of the cannon, which announced the fall of the ancient Spanish dynasty. When Prim and Topete, followed by Serrano, landed in Cadiz, and the exiled generals from the Canaries joined them, there was no doubt of success. Cadiz went wild with joy; Seville followed suit: the telegraph carried the great news through Spain, and, as if by magic, the whole country rose.

Prim in command.

To the last moment Gonzales Brabo, who was with the Queen on the north coast, had

lived in a fool's paradise, scoffing at all warnings; and the successful revolution came upon him like a thunderclap. While his colleagues in Madrid were praying him to come back, and proclaiming martial law, he could only desert the falling edifice, and recommend the Queen to appoint a military dictatorship under Manuel Concha, Marquis of Habana, who, collecting such forces as remained faithful, sent General Pavia, Marquis of Novaliches, to meet Serrano and the revolting army of Andalusia, which was advancing on Madrid; while other loyal generals were told off to hold in subjection the north and centre of Spain.

The revolution breaks out.

Serrano left Cordova on the 24th of September to meet Pavia, who stood in his way toward Madrid with 9,000 infantry, 1,300 cavalry, and 32 guns. The armies met on the plains of Alcolea, with the famous bridge, the scene of so many struggles, between them. From the first Pavia knew that success was hopeless, for the revolt had awakened the sleeping land like a bugle call, and Serrano's force was the larger; but he was the soul of loyalty, and sorrowfully resolved to fight to the last in a lost cause. The bridge had been seized by Serrano's General, Caballero de Rodas, and there the principal struggle took place. "Viva la Reina!" cried the Government soldiers, as they rushed to storm it; and "Viva la libertad!" was the reply of the de-

The battle of Alcolea.

fenders. Soon both detachments were firing from behind parapets of corpses, and on all sides across the plain the bitter conflict raged, abounding in instances of pitiful generosity and chivalry, as well as in brutal fury; while honest John Rutledge, the Northumberland engineer, who had run down from Cordova on his engine by the line that overlooked the battlefield, worked like a beneficent giant helping the wounded and the dying. As night closed in, both armies were exhausted, for 1,000 men had fallen, and Pavia himself had had his nether jaw shot away. It was clear that Serrano could not be beaten back, and during the night the Queen's troops retired —those who did not join the insurgents— and Serrano's road to Madrid was free.

Triumph of Serrano.

In the meantime Gonzales Brabo had fled, and Concha's Government in Madrid was a prey to utter distraction; the Queen alone keeping a stout heart. She would go to Madrid and brave the rising; she would, indeed, at one time, have gone to Cadiz and exerted her personal influence on the generals: but as news came day by day of fresh ships or regiments revolting, ominous whispers of abdication in favor of little Alfonso, with old Espartero for Regent, were rife. But these were counsels of despair: and the Queen would not listen to them. Again and again she was ready to start for Madrid with all her Court; but Concha, who knew where the dan-

ger lay, always stopped her with a telegram, insisting that if she came she must come *alone,* or accompanied only by her children. She knew—all the world knew—what *alone* meant, and with tears of rage, that any man should dare to dictate to her—a Queen—the choice of her servants, she would tear up the ministers' telegrams and stamp them with fury beneath her feet; while the stout, coarse-looking man, with the sallow face, behind her, and the frail, gentle little consort by her side, could only bow to her imperious will.

On the 29th of September the news of the defeat of Alcolea reached her; and in quick succession, the intelligence of the unanimous rising of Madrid, the deposition of the Bourbon dynasty, and the formation of a provisional government. All through that night the distracted Queen and Court discussed the next step to be taken, and a dozen times the train, with its engine toward France, was ready in San Sebastian station and again countermanded. But as the thunder-peals of revolution drew nearer and nearer, and the French Cæsar, a few miles off at Biarritz, could offer nothing but sympathy and shelter, Isabel II. accepted the inevitable and went into exile.

Isabel deposed.

With tears coursing down her fat, good-natured cheeks, but still with a proud port befitting a Queen, leaning on the arm of her husband, and with Marfori behind her, she entered the railway carriage which bore her

The Queen leaves Spain.

over her frontier into France. A few weeping subjects blessed her and touched the hem of her garments as she passed, for the dregs of the great love the people had borne her still lingered; but her thoughts must have been gall and wormwood to her fond, proud heart; for in this very corner of her dominions hundreds had cheerfully laid down their lives for her. Even as her father had done before her, though not so wickedly, she had frittered away, by her faults and caprices, the ardent devotion of a loyal people, and lost the ancient crown which her ancestors had worn for well-nigh a thousand years. She went into exile with wounded pride, grief, and anger contending for the mastery: and her last official words on her own soil to the local authorities who took leave of her as she crossed the frontier, were the bitter words, *"I thought I had struck deeper root in this land."*

[In 1869, the Anglican Church is disestablished in Ireland. Russia gains control of the South German fortresses. Serrano is declared Regent of Spain. The Hudson Bay Company's territories are sold to Great Britain and incorporated with Canada. The Suez Canal is opened. Japan abolishes the feudal system.]

Suez Canal opened.

THE SUEZ CANAL

(A.D. 1869)

J. W. GROVER

FOR a period of about twelve centuries and a half, from the time of Darius to that of Omar, various attempts had been made to connect the waters of the Nile with the Red Sea; and in all these projects we note that the projectors always had in view the formation of a fresh-water canal. The idea of connecting sea to sea in a direct course never seems to have occurred to them.

Early attempts to connect the Nile with the Red Sea.

For over a thousand years after the times of Omar, the work was abandoned, and the next attempts were inaugurated by the French under the great Napoleon, who, during his occupation of Egypt, turned his genius toward the subject. He caused a survey and a report to be made of this great work of antiquity, under the direction of M. Lepère, a French engineer of high standing; and no doubt, if the French had been successful in Egypt, something would have been done toward the realization of the scheme. Without entering very precisely into the proposals of M. Lepère, it may be said generally that they were

founded on the same great error which had defeated the ancient plans, viz., that the Red Sea was higher than the Mediterranean by a mean height of *twenty-seven feet and a half,* and he made the mean height of the Nile at Cairo the same; but as the river rises and falls twenty-three and a half feet, whereas the Red Sea does not vary more than five and a half feet, he proposed to construct the canal in sections, having locks between them, to govern the differences in height at various times. The line he proposed was first from Bubastis to Seneka (or Abaceh), a distance of about twelve miles; the second length extended as far as Serapium, and was to be thirty-eight miles long; the third section, of twenty-seven miles, extended through the Bitter Lakes; and the fourth length, from them to the Red Sea, a distance of about thirteen miles. He estimated the cost of these works at £691,000 sterling; but with a number of accessories he brought up his figures to nearly £1,250,000. It is only fair, however, to M. Lepère to say that he spoke favorably of a direct cut from sea to sea. That distance is, in a straight line, about seventy-five miles; but, as surveyed, his canal would have been about ninety-three miles long.

Lepère's plan.

In the year 1847, a French engineer, M. Linant Bey, in the service of the Egyptian Government, proposed to carry a canal from the Red Sea, through the Bitter Lakes to Lake

Linant Bey's proposal.

Timsah, and thence through the lagoons of Lake Mensaleh to Tineh (Pelusium) on the Mediterranean; and on the assumption that the levels of M. Lepère were correct, he calculated that there would be a flow through the canal of three or four miles an hour.

Robert Stephenson's discovery.

At that time, however, our own eminent engineer, the late Robert Stephenson, M.P., appeared upon the scene, and under his auspices a careful set of levels were taken across the Isthmus, which revealed the curious and important fact that there was no essential difference between the two seas at low water, and at high water the difference was not more than four feet. This discovery seems for a time to have deterred further enterprise, it being Mr. Stephenson's opinion that the canal could not be kept open without a current through it.

M. de Lesseps revives the project.

About four years after, the project was again revived by M. Ferdinand de Lesseps, to whom the Khedive of Egypt granted the concession of making a canal direct from sea to sea, besides subscribing substantially to the undertaking. At the instance of M. de Lesseps, an international commission of engineers was appointed to examine and report upon the plans; and under their direction an exact survey was made of the country, and fresh levels were taken, which confirmed Mr. Stephenson's statement that the two seas were virtually the same level. It was now proposed that a canal should be excavated having a depth of 8 me-

tres, or 26 feet 3 inches; and a width at the water-level of 80 metres, or 262 feet. The estimate for this work was £6,500,000; and it was proposed to form a company, with a capital of £8,000,000. It need hardly be observed, that the works have cost double that amount.

Colonel Chesney.

It would not be fair to omit the name of Colonel Chesney among the list of those eminent men who foresaw the practicability and advantages of a direct connection from sea to sea. In 1830, he examined the country, and says: "As to the executive part, there is but one opinion. There are no serious difficulties; not a single mountain intervenes, scarcely what deserves to be called a hillock. In a country where labor can be had without limit, and at a rate infinitely below that of any other part of the world, the expense would be a moderate one for a single nation, and scarcely worth dividing between the great kingdoms of Europe, who would all be benefited by the measure."

Work of M. de Lesseps.

Having thus glanced at the general history of the earlier Suez canals, which were all more or less abortive, I will endeavor, in as concise a form as possible, to describe the wonderful work of M. de Lesseps.

The whole length of the Canal, from Port Said to Suez, may be taken at eighty-eight geographical miles; of this, sixty-six miles are actual canal; and twenty-two miles of the navi-

gation run through three lakes, viz., Timsah and the Great and Little Bitter Lakes. In all cases, however, except for about eight miles, it was necessary to excavate to obtain the required depth. The width of the Canal at the surface varies from 325 feet to 195 feet; and its floor is 72 feet wide, the depth of water being 26 feet; the general slope of the excavation being 2 to 1, but considerably flatter where the surface of the water impinges. At every five or six miles between Port Said and Lake Timsah—the whole distance being forty-two miles—there is a "gare," or siding, to allow large vessels to bring up in, either for the purpose of passing each other or to moor for the night.

Width of the Canal.

The greatest difficulty anticipated was that the large quantity of deposit being constantly carried eastward from the Nile would rapidly form a shoal across the entrance to the Canal at Port Said. M. de Lesseps, however, boldly confronted this difficulty, and his decision has been justified by the event. He has thrown out two formidable breakwaters on both sides of the Canal, inclosing an area of 450 acres, and extending as far as 6,940 feet to sea on one side, and 6,020 feet on the other. These form a good, quiet harbor, and effectually keep out the silt. The breakwaters are made of loose blocks of artificial stone. At Suez, the port of entry is easy of access. A breakwater here protects the entrance from southerly winds.

The breakwaters.

From the Nile at Cairo to Ismailia there is a fresh-water canal, which connects with the maritime canal there by means of two locks. About three miles before reaching Ismailia, an arm of this fresh-water canal branches off, and runs alongside of the main Canal to Suez. The depth of this fresh-water canal is about four feet. There is also a railway from Suez to Ismailia along the route of the canal.

The fresh-water canal at Ismailia.

To show the enormous value of this work to all Indian and Chinese interests, it may be sufficient here to state that the Canal route saves very nearly one-half the distance between the English Channel and Galle, the distances being round the Cape of Good Hope, 11,650 miles, and by the Canal, 6,515; or a saving of 5,135 miles, or in point of time, thirty-six days.

Value of the Canal.

It was in the year 1854 that Mohammed Said succeeded Abbas Pacha. On the 15th of November, in that year, M. de Lesseps submitted to him a memorial advocating with grand simplicity and power the advantages of this grand project. On the 30th of November, the concession was signed, inaugurating a Universal Company for piercing the Isthmus of Suez. Then the English representative asked the Viceroy how he expected the work could ever be accomplished. To which Mohammed Said replied, "that M. de Lesseps having entitled his company 'Universal,' all nations would be invited to contribute to its

The Company formed in 1854.

capital." M. de Lesseps himself announced, in these terms, to the English agent, the signing of the firman: "I come as the friend of peace and of the Anglo-French alliance, to bring you that which will contribute to realize the saying, *'Aperire terram, et dare pacem gentibus.'*"

[In 1870, the Franco-Prussian war breaks out, the French troops are recalled from Civita Vecchia and the Italian troops bombard and occupy Rome, ending the temporal power of the Papacy. The son of Victor Emmanuel is chosen King of Spain. A revolt of Indian half-breeds on the Red River is suppressed. Diamonds are discovered in the Orange Free State. Board Schools are established in England. Infanticide is prohibited in India.]

End of the Pope's temporal power.

THE FRANCO-GERMAN WAR

(A.D. 1870—1871)

JAMES SIME

EARLY in July, 1870, Leopold, the hereditary Prince of Hohenzollern, at the request of the Spanish Government, and with the permission of King William of Prussia as head of the Hohenzollern family, became a candidate for the Spanish throne. The Emperor Napoleon, who had never heartily accepted the reconstitution of Germany, and who was anxious for an opportunity to establish his waning popularity in France, resolved to make Leopold's candidature the pretext for a war with Germany. A cry was raised in the French Legislative Assembly that a foreign Power was about to place one of its princes on the throne of Charles V. A section of the French people took up the cry, and called loudly for the submission of Germany to the wish of France. To take away all cause of dispute, the Prince of Hohenzollern formally resigned his candidature on July 12. Not content with this triumph, Napoleon insisted that the King of Prussia should give an assurance to France

France declares war against Prussia.

that the candidature of the Prince of Hohenzollern would not be renewed. M. Benedetti, the French ambassador, came on the 13th to Ems, where the King was staying, and on a public promenade urged this demand. King William not only refused to grant it, but declined to listen further to M. Benedetti on the subject. An official telegram from Ems informed the German Governments of this fact next day. War had now become certain; and the King hurried toward Berlin. On the 15th he was met at the Brandenburg station by the Crown Prince, Counts von Bismarck, von Moltke, and von Roon, and informed of what had taken place that day in the French Legislative Assembly. All that was now wanting was the formal declaration of war. While still in Brandenburg, therefore, the King of Prussia gave orders for the mobilization of the North German army. Next day the Federal Council met, and expressed its hearty concurrence with the views of the Government; and on the 19th the Confederate Diet was opened by the King with a speech of great dignity and moderation. On the same day, the French declaration of war was received and communicated to the Assembly.

The French ambassador snubbed.

The South German States remain true to Prussia.

Napoleon, misinformed as to the real state of Germany, had hoped that the South Germans, if they did not actually join France, would at least remain neutral. But, though in Bavaria and Würtemberg there were strong

parties in favor of such a course, they were true to their engagements. On the 16th the King of Bavaria and the Grand Duke of Baden ordered the mobilization of their troops; and next day the King of Würtemberg followed their example. On the 20th the South German princes formally announced to the King of Prussia that their forces were at his disposal; and the Prussian Crown Prince at once left Berlin to take the command of the united army. Throughout all Germany the prospect of the war excited much enthusiasm. It must not be supposed that the miserable Hohenzollern dispute had really anything to do with the war. It was of even less importance than the Schleswig-Holstein quarrel had been in the Austro-Prussian war. In a few days the world almost forgot that the Prince of Hohenzollern had been a candidate for the Spanish throne. What France was really about to fight for was the maintenance of her supposed supremacy in Europe. Germany had taken up arms in her own defence, and perhaps she was not unwilling to engage in a struggle by which she might thoroughly humble a Power that had for centuries lost no opportunity of adding to her divisions, robbing her of her territory, and depriving her of her just place among the nations.

Real causes of the war.

The German army, including the forces both of North and South Germany, numbered more than a million men. This vast force was

Vast force of Germans

under the supreme command of the King of Prussia, whose chief adviser was again General von Moltke, head of the General Staff. It was divided into three armies, some part of each of which remained behind for the protection of the country. The first, under General von Steinmetz, was placed near Trier as the right wing; the second, under Prince Frederick Charles, assembled in Rhenish Bavaria; the third, consisting of the South German army and of three Prussian corps, and commanded by the Prussian Crown Prince, occupied the right bank of the Rhine from Mannheim to Rastatt. By the end of July these three armies were ready for action, and some skirmishing took place. But real fighting did not begin till next month. On August 4 the third army began its march toward the Lauter, and the first battle was fought at Weissenburg. The French were defeated, and the whole of the third army encamped on French soil. On the 6th a great victory was won by the same army at Wörth over Marshal MacMahon. The loss on both sides was heavy; but the defeat of the French was complete. They fled in such wild disorder that MacMahon's corps was for some time hopelessly scattered. The Crown Prince at once began his march across the Vosges mountains, leaving the Baden division to besiege Strassburg. On the day of the battle of Wörth a part of the first and second armies gained a

The German commanders.

The first battle.

brilliant victory near Saarbrücken. The bravery with which the heights of Spicheren were stormed has rarely been equalled. After this battle the whole German army entered France.

Further victories.

The three German armies now pressed on toward the Moselle. The scene of the great battles which were next fought, and which rapidly followed one another, was the country immediately in front of Metz. Marshal Bazaine, who had now assumed the supreme command of the French army, and who apparently wished to join MacMahon, began his march from Metz on the 14th; but he was attacked by a portion of the first German army at Courcelles, and driven back. Next day he again set out toward Verdun. On the 16th the battle of Mars-la-Tour or Bionville was fought. It continued from morning till night, and portions both of the first and second armies took part in it. The result was unfavorable to the French; but on the 18th they were still more decidedly defeated at Gravelotte, and obliged to take refuge in Metz. That fortress was instantly surrounded by the first and second armies, the supreme command of both of which was given to Prince Frederick Charles. The Prussian Crown Prince had awaited at Nancy the issue of the battles before Metz. His orders now were to proceed against Marshal MacMahon, who had reorganized and greatly strengthened his army at

Metz is surrounded.

Châlons. To aid the Crown Prince in this difficult undertaking, a fourth army was formed from corps which had hitherto belonged to the second army. It was in the end placed under the Crown Prince of Saxony, and called the army of the Maes. The King of Prussia himself assumed the supreme command of the armies of the two Crown Princes. Both were in full march westward, and the Prussian Crown Prince had fixed his headquarters at Ligny, when the news came that Marshal MacMahon had left Châlons. It was soon discovered that he had been in Rheims, and was marching toward Rethel. It was therefore concluded that he was making for Metz, with the intention of operating with Marshal Bazaine against Prince Frederick Charles. The Germans at once turned to the right, and marched in pursuit of the enemy. MacMahon had concentrated his troops near Vouziers. On August 28 he advanced toward the Maes in the direction of Beaumont. Two days afterward an important battle was fought near the latter place, the result of which was that the French were driven toward Sedan, while the road leading to Metz was occupied by the Germans. MacMahon's great scheme was thus already baffled. The decisive battle of the campaign was fought on September 1. After severe fighting the French were driven from all sides into Sedan, which the Germans surrounded, and into which they were pre-

Mac-Mahon's movements

Battle of Sedan.

Terms of Capitulation.

pared to pour a destructive fire. Nothing remained for the French but to surrender. The Emperor Napoleon, who had for some time freely exposed himself on the battlefield, yielded his sword to King William; and next day the two monarchs had an interview. The conditions of the capitulation were agreed upon by Count von Moltke and General Wimpffen, the latter having assumed the command of the French early on the previous day, when Marshal MacMahon was disabled by a severe wound. All the troops in Sedan, amounting to 84,000 men, together with 50 generals and 5,000 other officers, yielded themselves prisoners of war, while the entire war material of the army became the property of the Germans. Those officers who passed their word of honor to take no future part in the war were set free. The Emperor Napoleon received as his residence the Castle of Wilhelmshöhe, near Cassel.

The tidings of the French Emperor's surrender caused much excitement in Germany. Many hoped that the war would now cease; but this hope was soon shown to be groundless. The German people had made up their minds that the cession of Elsass and German Lorraine should be a condition of peace. The French Government of the National Defence, which displaced the Empire, at once declared that France would give Germany any sum of money, but would not yield an inch of its terri-

France is still obstinate.

tory or a stone of its fortresses. Germany, therefore, all but unanimously approved of the continuance of the war. Almost immediately after the battle of Sedan, the armies of the two Crown Princes began their march toward Paris. On September 5, King William entered Rheims, and in a fortnight afterward the Germans were before Paris, the third army occupying the country to the south and southeast, the army of the Maes that to the north and northeast. The Prussian Crown Prince fixed his headquarters in Versailles, where those of King William were also placed, on October 5. Meanwhile two distinct efforts to break through the German lines had been made, one by General Ducrot, on September 19, another by General Vinoy, on September 30; but both times the French were driven back. On October 13 and October 21, similar attempts were made, but with a like result. The French were somewhat more successful on October 28, when they took possession of the village of Le Bourget, and began to mass troops there. Two days afterward, after a brave defence, they had to retreat.

Siege of Paris.

Meanwhile, a new French army, called the army of the Loire, had been raised and had begun to operate with a view to the relief of Paris; and General Faidherbe had also formed an army in the north. But fresh disasters had befallen France. Strassburg had

surrendered on September 27; and on October 27, Marshal Bazaine, after having several times tried to escape from Metz, capitulated with his whole army, which consisted of 173,000 men, with three marshals and 6,000 officers. Metz itself was surrendered to the Germans. The troops which had so long surrounded Metz were then free to prosecute the war which had anew broken out on the field. The first army was placed under General von Manteuffel, and, with the exception of the troops left behind for the occupation of Metz and Lorraine, proceeded in a northwest direction, against Faidherbe. The greater part of the second army marched toward the south, where Prince Frederick Charles was to assume the supreme command. On October 12, General von der Tann had taken possession of Orleans; but on November 8, his troops being enormously outnumbered by the army of the Loire, he retreated. Next day he was hotly attacked, and on the 10th fell back upon Tours. He was joined by the Grand Duke of Mecklenburg, who was sent with troops from Paris to hold the French in check until the second army should come up. The Grand Duke gained some advantages before the arrival of Prince Frederick Charles; but when the latter appeared, the army of the Loire, which had begun its march toward Paris, was driven back at all points, and on December 4, after severe fighting, Orleans was once more

Surrender of Metz.

Further French disasters.

occupied by the Germans. The army of the Loire was then broken up into two great divisions, one under General Chanzy, the other commanded by General Bourbaki. The former army was repeatedly defeated, and at length altogether scattered by Prince Frederick Charles; the latter marched toward the east, with a view to effect a diversion by the invasion of South Germany. In the north, Faidherbe displayed great energy; but he was twice defeated in the neighborhood of Amiens; he was overcome also at Bapaume and St. Quentin. A new German army, called the south army, was formed to oppose Bourbaki in the east, and placed under General von Manteuffel, who was succeeded in the north by General von Goeben. For a moment South Germany appeared in real danger from the advance of Bourbaki, for, although he was pursued by General von Manteuffel, the latter was far in the rear. The danger was averted by the courage of General von Werder, who, with the Baden division, had for some time been holding Generals Cambriel and Garibaldi in check, and who now resolved, at whatever cost, to prevent the further advance of Bourbaki's army. For three days Bourbaki strove, with his large army, at Hericourt, to drive back Werder's small force; but the Baden troops fought with such bravery that the French, on January 17, 1871, were themselves obliged to retreat in

Faidherbe's wasted energy.

Bravery of the Baden division.

disorder. Bourbaki was displaced by General Clinchant; but the latter succeeded no better. Harassed on every side by General von Manteuffel, Clinchant crossed the Swiss frontier with his whole army, consisting of 84,000 men, on February 1.

During the progress of the war the South Germans, proud of the common German name, began to feel how small are the points of difference between themselves and their northern kinsfolk compared with those great interests by which all Germans are united.

German desire for a closer union.

This feeling gave rise to a desire for a closer union with the Northern Confederation; and in the middle of October, 1870, plenipotentiaries were sent from all the Southern States to Versailles for the purpose of bringing about the desired change. The result of the negotiations was that treaties were signed with Hessen and Baden on November 15; with Bavaria on November 23; and with Würtemberg on November 25. By these treaties, which afterward received the approval of the

The German Confederation.

North German Diet and the South German Parliaments, the Northern Confederation was changed into a German Confederation. This change was accompanied by another of great importance. On December 4, King Ludwig II. of Bavaria proposed to the other German sovereigns, and to the Senates of the three free towns, that the President of the Confederation should receive the title of German

Emperor. The proposal being agreed to, King William was, on January 18, 1871, in the Hall of Mirrors in the palace of Versailles, in presence of a brilliant company of German princes and representatives of the army, solemnly proclaimed Emperor in Germany. William declared Emperor.

On the following day (the very day on which Faidherbe was defeated at St. Quentin) the French made a last attempt to escape from Paris; but their plans were ill arranged, and they were driven back with heavy loss. The Government of the National Defence, feeling that further resistance was now impossible, opened negotiations with a view to peace. On January 28, Paris formally surrendered; and an armistice for three weeks was concluded, which, however, did not apply to the military operations in the eastern provinces. The preliminaries of peace were signed on February 26 by Count Bismarck and the South German plenipotentiaries on the one hand, and by MM. Thiers and Favre on the other. According to these, France ceded to the German Empire the province of Elsass (excluding Belfort) and German Lorraine (including Metz and Thionville); and undertook to pay 5,000 millions of francs as an indemnity for the expenses of the war. On March 1, a portion of the German troops entered Paris and occupied a small part of it; but two days afterward they left it, the National Assembly at Peace negotiations. The Germans enter Paris.

Bordeaux having already ratified the preliminaries of peace. The German and French plenipotentiaries, who met at Brussels on March 27, for the purpose of concluding a treaty, could not come to an agreement on various points. The delay caused by the misunderstandings, and the troubled state of France, gave rise to an uneasy feeling in Germany. Count Bismarck, therefore, himself interfered, and on May 6 met M. Favre at Frankfurt. Here a treaty was formally signed on the 10th; and it was afterward ratified by the German and French Governments. The treaty of Frankfurt differed only in details from the preliminaries which had before been concluded. The district round Belfort was yielded to the French; but in return the latter ceded some additional territory in Lorraine.

Peace of Frankfurt.

The German people were displeased that France was allowed to keep Belfort; but on the whole they regarded the results of the war with pride and pleasure. The ancient military fame of Germany had been more than maintained; the Fatherland had been united; and the national sentiment was gratified by the conquest of the long-lost provinces of Elsass and Lorraine, which would henceforth form a defence against French attacks. The Austro-Prussian war had raised Prussia to the first place in Germany; the present war raised Germany to the first place in Europe.

Feeling of the Germans as to the war.

[In 1871, a Republic is proclaimed in France, as the Comte de Chambord refuses to renounce the white flag; the Commune breaks out in Paris and is suppressed by MacMahon, after great incendiarism and excesses. The seat of Italian Government is transferred from Florence to Rome. The Tweed ring of New York is broken up; Holland cedes her Gold Coast settlements to England. The Mont Cenis tunnel is opened. Livingstone discovers the Upper Congo. The English Universities abolish the Religious test. English trade-unions are legalized. In 1872, the ballot is introduced. The Geneva Court of Arbitration awards $15,000,000 damages to the United States for the depredations by the *Alabama* and other ships. In 1873, the last instalment of indemnity is paid and the German troops evacuate France; general conscription is introduced. In Spain, the King resigns, and a Republic is proclaimed. Castelar becomes dictator; Carlists revolt in the north, Federalists and Communists in the south. The treaty of Zanzibar forbids the Slave Trade in Africa. In 1874, the troubles in Spain are concluded by the proclamation of Alfonso, son of Isabella, as King. The British conclude a war with Ashanti by the capture of Coomassie. In 1875, a controlling interest in the Suez Canal is bought by Disraeli. France adopts a new constitution, with a President for seven years. Bosnia and

France a Republic.

The Geneva award.

England controls the Suez Canal.

Herzegovina revolt against Turkey. Stanley circumnavigates Victoria Nyanza and Tanganyika. The Universal Postal Union is instituted. Plimsoll carries the Merchant Shipping Bill. In 1876, the Carlist War ends. Bulgaria revolts and is treated with horrible cruelty. Servia and Montenegro declare war on the Sultan and are aided by Russian volunteers. France and England establish the Dual Control in Egypt. Christian Science is founded by Mrs. Eddy. A telephone is invented by Bell. In 1877, Russian troops invade Turkey; Roumania aids Russia; the Turks hold Plevna with great gallantry for a long time. Kars in Asia Minor is stormed by the Russians. Great Britain annexes the South African Republic and the Queen is proclaimed Empress of India. Japan suppresses an obstinate rebellion in Satsuma. In 1878, Great Britain prepares to aid Turkey, who signs the treaty of San Stefano with Russia. Great Britain demands a European Congress, which meets at Berlin. Great Britain acquires Cyprus. Austria reduces Bosnia and Herzegovina. The Ameer refuses to receive an English mission, and General Roberts invades Afghanistan. Electric lighting is introduced. David Hughes discovers the microphone.]

Universal Postal Union.

The telephone invented.

Electric lighting introduced.

THE CONGRESS OF BERLIN

(A.D. 1878)

JUSTIN McCARTHY

THE common expectation was soon fulfilled. At the close of June, 1876, Servia and Montenegro declared war against Turkey. Servia's struggle was short. At the beginning of September the struggle was over, and Servia was practically at Turkey's feet. The hardy Montenegrin mountaineers held their own stoutly against the Turks everywhere, but they could not seriously influence the fortunes of a war. Russia intervened and insisted upon an armistice, and her demand was acceded to by Turkey. Meanwhile, the general feeling in England on both sides was growing stronger and stronger. Public meetings of Mr. Gladstone's supporters were held all over the country, and the English Government was urged in the most emphatic manner to bring some strong influence to bear on Turkey. On the other hand, it can not be doubted that the common suspicion of Russia's designs began to grow more keen and wakeful than ever. Lord

Servia and Montenegro declare war against Turkey.

Derby frankly made known to the Emperor Alexander what was thought or feared in England, and the Emperor replied by pledging his sacred word that he had no intention of occupying Constantinople, and that if he were compelled by events to occupy any part of Bulgaria, it should be only provisionally, and until the safety of the Christians should be secured. Then Lord Derby proposed that a conference of the European Powers should be held at Constantinople in order to agree upon some scheme which should provide at once for the proper government of the various provinces and populations subject to Turkey, and at the same time for the maintenance of the independence and integrity of the Ottoman Empire. The proposal was accepted by all the Great Powers, and on November 8, 1876, it was announced that Lord Salisbury and Sir Henry Elliott, the English Ambassador at Constantinople, were to attend as the representatives of England.

Lord Derby proposes a conference of the European Powers.

Lord Beaconsfield was apparently determined to recover the popularity that had been somewhat impaired by his unlucky way of dealing with the massacres of Bulgaria. His plan now was to go boldly in for denunciation of Russia. He sometimes talked of Russia as he might of an enemy who had already declared war against England. The prospects of a peaceful settlement of the European controversy seemed to become heavily

overclouded. Lord Beaconsfield appeared to be holding the dogs of war by the collar, and only waiting for the convenient moment to let them slip. Every one knew that some of his colleagues, Lord Derby, for example, and Lord Carnarvon, were opposed to any thought of war, and felt almost as strongly for the Christian provinces of Turkey as Mr. Gladstone did. But people shook their heads doubtfully when it was asked whether Lord Derby or Lord Carnarvon, or both combined, could prevail in strength of will against Lord Beaconsfield.

Lord Beaconsfield denounces Russia.

The conference at Constantinople came to nothing. The Turkish statesmen at first attempted to put off the diplomatists of the West by the announcement that the Sultan had granted a Constitution to Turkey, and that there was to be a Parliament, at which representatives of all provinces were to speak for themselves. There was, in fact, a Turkish Parliament called together. Of course, the Western statesmen could not be put off by an announcement of this kind. They knew well enough what a Turkish Parliament must mean. It seems almost superfluous to say that the Turkish Parliament was ordered to disappear very soon after the occasion passed away for trying to deceive the Great European Powers. Evidently Turkey had got it into her head that the English Government would at the last moment stand by her, and

Failure of the Constantinople conference.

Turkey refuses to come to terms.

would not permit her to be coerced. She refused to come to terms, and the Conference broke up without having accomplished any good. New attempts at arrangement were made between England, Russia, and others of the Great Powers, but they fell through. Then at last, on April 24, 1877, Russia declared war against Turkey, and on June 27 a Russian army crossed the Danube and moved toward the Balkans, meeting with comparatively little resistance, while at the same time another Russian force invaded Asia Minor.

Russia declares war against Turkey.

For a while the Russians seemed likely to carry all before them. But they had made the one great mistake of altogether undervaluing their enemies. Their preparations were hasty and imperfect. The Turks turned upon them unexpectedly and made a gallant and almost desperate resistance. One of their commanders, Osman Pasha, suddenly threw up defensive works at Plevna, in Bulgaria, a point the Russians had neglected to secure, and maintained himself there, repulsing the Russians many times with great slaughter. For a while success seemed altogether on the side of the Turks, and many people in England were convinced that the Russian enterprise was already an entire failure; that nothing remained for the armies of the Czar but retreat, disaster, and disgrace. Under the directing skill, however, of General Todleben, the great soldier whose splendid defence of

Osman Pasha at Plevna.

Sebastopol had made the one grand military reputation of the Crimean War, the fortunes of the campaign again turned. Kars was taken by assault on November 18, 1877; Plevna surrendered on December 10. At the opening of 1878 the Turks were completely prostrate. The road to Constantinople was clear. Before the English public had time to recover their breath and to observe what was taking place, the victorious armies of Russia were almost within sight of the minarets of Stamboul.

Victories of the Russian army.

Meanwhile, the English Government were taking momentous action. In the first days of 1878 Sir Henry Elliott, who had been Ambassador in Constantinople, was transferred to Vienna, and Mr. Layard, who had been Minister at Madrid, was sent to the Turkish capital to represent England there. Mr. Layard was known to be a strong believer in Turkey; more Turkish in some respects than the Turks themselves. But he was a man of superabundant energy; of what might be described as boisterous energy. The Ottoman Government could not but accept his appointment as a new and stronger proof that the English Government were determined to stand their friend; but they ought to have accepted it, too, as evidence that the English Government were determined to use some pressure to make them amenable to reason. Unfortunately it would appear, that the Sultan's Government accepted

Mr. Layard appointed British Ambassador to Turkey.

Mr. Layard's appointment in the one sense only and not in the other. Parliament was called together at least a fortnight before the time usual during recent years. The Speech from the Throne announced that Her Majesty could not conceal from herself that, should the hostilities between Russia and Turkey unfortunately be prolonged, "some unexpected occurrence may render it incumbent on me to adopt measures of precaution." This looked ominous to those who wished for peace, and it raised the spirits of the War Party. There was a very large and a very noisy war party already in existence. It was particularly strong in London. It embraced some Liberals as well as nearly all Tories. It was popular in the music-halls and the public-houses of London. The men of action got a nickname. A poet of the music-halls had composed a ballad which was sung at one of these caves of harmony every night amid the tumultuous applause of excited patriots. The refrain of this war-song contained the spirit-stirring words:—

English War Party.

"We don't want to fight, but, by Jingo, if we do,
We've got the ships, we've got the men, we've got the money, too."

Some one whose pulses this lyrical outburst of national pride failed to stir called the party of its enthusiasts Jingoes. The name was caught up at once, and the party was uni-

Origin of the word "Jingo."

versally known as the Jingoes. The term, applied as one of ridicule and reproach, was adopted by chivalrous Jingoes as a name of pride.

The Government ordered the Mediterranean fleet to pass the Dardanelles and go up to Constantinople. The Chancellor of the Exchequer announced that he would ask for a supplementary estimate of six millions for naval and military purposes. Thereupon Lord Carnarvon, the Colonial Secretary, at once resigned. He had been anxious to get out of the Ministry before, but Lord Beaconsfield induced him to remain. He disapproved now so strongly of the despatch of the fleet to Constantinople and the supplementary vote that he would not any longer defer his resignation. Lord Derby was also anxious to resign, and indeed tendered his resignation, but he was prevailed upon to withdraw it. The fleet meanwhile was ordered back from the Dardanelles to Besika Bay. It had got as far as the opening of the Straits when it was recalled. The Liberal Opposition in the House of Commons kept on protesting against the various war measures of the Government, but with little effect. While all this agitation in and out of Parliament was going on, the news came that the Turks, utterly broken down, had been compelled to sign an armistice, and an agreement containing a basis of peace, at Adrianople. Then, following quickly on the

English fleet ordered to Constantinople.

The Turks sign an armistice.

heels of this announcement, came a report that the Russians, notwithstanding the armistice, were pushing on toward Constantinople with the intention of occupying the Turkish capital. A cry of alarm and indignation broke out in London. If the clamor of the streets at that moment had been the voice of England, nothing could have prevented a declaration of war against Russia. Happily, however, it was proved that the rumor of Russian advance was unfounded. The fleet was now sent in good earnest through the Dardanelles, and anchored a few miles below Constantinople. Russia at first protested that if the English fleet passed the Straits, Russian troops ought to occupy the city. Lord Derby was firm, and terms of arrangement were found—English troops were not to be disembarked and the Russians were not to advance. Russia was still open to negotiation.

War fever in London.

Probably Russia had no idea of taking on herself the tremendous responsibility of an occupation of Constantinople. She had entered into a treaty with Turkey, the famous treaty of San Stefano, which secured for the populations of the Christian provinces almost complete independence of Turkey, and was to create a great new Bulgarian State with a seaport on the Egean Sea. The English Government refused to recognize this treaty. Russia offered to submit the treaty to the perusal, if we may use the expression, of a Congress; but

The treaty of San Stefano.

argued that the stipulations which merely concerned Turkey and herself were for Turkey and herself to settle between them. This was obviously an untenable position. It is out of the question to suppose that, as long as European policy is conducted on its present principles, the Great Powers of the West could consent to allow Russia to force on Turkey any terms she might think proper. Turkey meanwhile kept feebly moaning that she had been coerced into signing the treaty. The Government determined to call in the Reserves, to summon a contingent of Indian troops to Europe, to occupy Cyprus, and to make an armed landing on the coast of Syria. All these resolves were not, however, made known at the time.

Every one felt sure that something important was going on, and public expectancy was strained to the full. On March 28, 1878, Lord Derby announced his resignation. Measures, he said, had been resolved upon of which he could not approve. He did not give any explanation of the measures to which he objected. Lord Beaconsfield spoke a few words of good feeling and good taste after Lord Derby's announcement. He had hoped, he said, that Lord Derby would soon come to occupy the place of Prime Minister which he now held; he dwelt upon their long friendship. Not much was said on either side of what the Government were doing. The last

Lord Derby resigns.

hope of the Peace Party seemed to have vanished when Lord Derby left his office.

Changes in the British ministry.

Lord Salisbury was made Foreign Minister. He was succeeded in the Indian Office by Mr. Gathorne Hardy, now created Lord Cranbrook. Colonel Stanley, brother of Lord Derby, took the office of Minister of War in Lord Cranbrook's place. Sir Michael Hicks-Beach had already become Secretary of the Colonies on the resignation of Lord Carnarvon. The post of Irish Secretary had been given to Mr. James Lowther. Lord Salisbury issued a circular in which he declared that it would be impossible for England to enter a Congress which was not free to consider the whole of the provisions of the Treaty of San Stefano. The very day after Parliament had adjourned for the Easter recess, the

Indian troops ordered to Malta.

Indian Government received orders to send certain of their troops to Malta. This was a complete surprise to the country. It was made the occasion for a very serious controversy on a grave constitutional question in both Houses of Parliament. The Opposition contended that the constitutional principle which left it for Parliament to fix the number of soldiers the Crown might maintain in England was reduced to nothingness if the Prime Minister could at any moment, without even consulting Parliament, draw what reinforcements he thought fit from the almost limitless resources of India. The majority of those supporting

Lord Beaconsfield were not, however, much disposed to care about argument. They were willing to approve of any step Lord Beaconsfield might think fit to take.

Prince Bismarck had often during these events shown an inclination to exhibit himself in the new attitude of a peaceful mediator. He now interposed again, and issued invitations for a Congress to be held in Berlin to discuss the whole contents of the Treaty of San Stefano. After some delay, discussion, and altercation, Russia agreed to accept the invitation on the conditions proposed, and it was finally resolved that a Congress should assemble in Berlin on the approaching June 13. Much to the surprise of the public, Lord Beaconsfield announced that he himself would attend, accompanied by Lord Salisbury, and conduct the negotiations in Berlin. The event was, we believe, without precedent. Never before had an English Prime Minister left the country while Parliament was sitting to act as the representative of England in a foreign capital. The part he had undertaken to play suited Lord Beaconsfield's love for the picturesque and the theatrical. His journey to Berlin was a sort of triumphal progress. At every great city, almost at every railway station, as he passed, crowds turned out, drawn partly by curiosity, partly by admiration, to see the English statesman whose strange and varied career had so long excited the wonder-

Bismarck plans a Congress at Berlin.

Lord Beaconsfield's triumphal journey to Berlin.

ing attention of Europe. Prince Bismarck presided at the Congress, and, it is said, departed from the usual custom of diplomatic assemblages by opening the proceedings in English. The use of our language was understood to be a kindly and somewhat patronizing deference to the English Prime Minister, whose knowledge of spoken French was supposed to have fallen rather into decay of late years. The Congress discussed the whole, or nearly the whole, of the questions opened up by the recent war. Greece claimed to be heard there, and after some delay and some difficulty was allowed to plead her own cause.

The Treaty of Berlin.

The Treaty of Berlin recognized the complete independence of Roumania, of Servia, and of Montenegro, subject only to certain stipulations with regard to religious equality in each of these States. To Montenegro it gave a seaport and a slip of territory attaching to it. Thus one object of the mountaineers was accomplished. They were able to reach the sea. The treaty created, north of the Balkans, a State of Bulgaria: a much smaller Bulgaria than that sketched in the Treaty of San Stefano. Bulgaria was to be a self-governing State tributary to the Sultan and owning his suzerainty, but in other respects practically independent. It was to be governed by a Prince whom the population were to elect with the assent of the Great Powers and the confirmation of the Sultan. It was stipulated

that no member of any reigning dynasty of the Great European Powers should be eligible as a candidate. South of the Balkans, the treaty created another and a different kind of State, under the name of Eastern Roumelia. That State was to remain under the direct political and military authority of the Sultan, but it was to have, as to its interior condition, a sort of "administrative autonomy," as the favorite diplomatic phrase then was. East Roumelia was to be ruled by a Christian Governor, and there was a stipulation that the Sultan should not employ any irregular troops, such as the Circassians and the Bashi-Bazouks, in the garrisons of the frontier. The European Powers were to arrange in concert with the Porte for the organization of this new State. As regarded Greece, it was arranged that the Sultan and the King of the Hellenes were to come to some understanding for the modification of the Greek frontier, and that if they could not arrange this between themselves, the Great Powers were to have the right of offering, that is to say, in plain words, of insisting on, their mediation. Bosnia and the Herzegovina were to be occupied and administered by Austria. Roumania undertook, or, in other words, was compelled to undertake, to return to Russia that portion of Bessarabian territory which had been detached from Russia by the Treaty of Paris. Roumania was to receive in compensation some islands forming the Delta of the

Eastern Roumelia created.

Danube, and a portion of the Dobrudscha. As regarded Asia, the Porte was to cede to Russia, Ardahan, Kars, and Batoum, with its great port on the Black Sea.

Adverse criticism.

The Treaty of Berlin gave rise to keen and adverse criticism. Very bitter indeed was the controversy provoked by the surrender to Russia of the Bessarabian territory taken from her at the time of the Crimean War. Russia had regained everything which she had been compelled to sacrifice at the close of the Crimean War. The Black Sea was open to her war vessels, and its shores to her arsenals. The last slight trace of Crimean humiliation was effaced in the restoration of the territory of Bessarabia. Profound disappointment was caused among many European populations, as well as among the Greeks themselves, by the arrangements for the rectification of the Greek frontier.

Russia's gains.

Thus, speaking roughly, it may be said that the effect of the Congress of Berlin on the mind of Europe was to make the Christian populations of the southeast believe that their friend was Russia and their enemies were England and Turkey; to make the Greeks believe that France was their especial friend, and that England was their enemy; and to create an uncomfortable impression everywhere that the whole Congress was a prearranged business, a transaction with a foregone conclusion, a dramatic performance carefully rehearsed before

in all its details and merely enacted as a pageant on the Berlin stage.

[In 1879, Davitt forms the Irish Land League; Chili and Peru go to war over the nitrate deposits; Peru's navy is ruined and her chief ports captured. The British go to war with the Zulus, who are successful at first, but crushed at Ulundi. Belgium sends Stanley to found the Congo Free State. The British envoy being murdered, Afghanistan is again invaded and the capital captured. In 1880, Montenegro acquires Dulcigno. In Afghanistan, the British are defeated at Maiwand, but Roberts makes a successful march to Candahar. The Boer War breaks out. Cologne Cathedral, begun in the Thirteenth Century, is finally completed. In 1881, the Czar Alexander II. is murdered. Turkey is forced to cede most of Thessaly and the command of the Gulf of Arta to Greece. President Garfield is murdered. The Boers defeat the British and the Transvaal recovers self-government. The French gain control of Tunis. A Dongola enthusiast proclaims himself the Mahdi and raises the Sudan against the Khedive. The Russians take the Turcoman fastness of Geok-Tepe and a general massacre follows. The Revised Version of the New Testament is brought out. In England, the Married Woman's Property Act is passed.]

Davitt forms Irish Land League.

President Garfield murdered.

THE RISE OF MAHDISM

(A.D. 1881)

G. W. STEEVENS

IN the year 1881, before we came to Egypt at all, there had arisen a religious teacher, a native of Dongola, named Mohammed Ahmed. The Sudan is the home of fanaticism: it has always been called "the Land of the Dervishes," and no rising saint was more ascetic than the young Dongolawi. He was a disciple of a holy man named Mohammed Sherif, and one day the master gave a feast at which there was dancing and singing. Such frivolity, said Mohammed Ahmed, was displeasing to Allah; whereat the Sherif was angry, cursed him, and cast him out. The disciple sprinkled ashes on his head, put a yoke on his neck, and fell at his master's feet, imploring forgiveness. Again Mohammed Sherif cursed him and cast him out.

Mohammed Ahmed.

Angered now himself, Mohammed Ahmed joined a new teacher and became a straiter ascetic than ever. The fame of his sanctity spread, and adherents flocked to him. He saw that the people of the Sudan, smarting under extortion and oppression, could but too

easily be roused against the Egyptian Government: he risked all, and proclaimed himself El Mahdi el Muntazer, the Expected Guide, the Mussulman Messiah. The Governor-General at Khartum sent two companies to arrest him: the Mahdi's followers fell on them unawares and destroyed them. More troops were sent; the Mahdists destroyed them: next came a small army, and again the Mahdists destroyed it. The barbarous tribesmen flocked to the Mahdi's standard, and in September, 1882, he laid siege to El Obeid, the chief city of Kordofan. His assault was beaten back with great slaughter, but after five months' siege the town surrendered; sack and massacre taught doubters what they had to expect.

His increasing influence.

The Sudan doubted no longer: of a truth this was the Mahdi. Hicks Pasha's army came down from the North only to swell the Mahdi's triumph to immensity. Unorganized, unwieldy, afraid, the Egyptians crawled on toward El Obeid, harassed by an enemy they never saw. They saw them at last on November 4, 1883, at Shekan: the fight lasted a minute, and the massacre spared only hundreds out of ten thousand. The rest you know—Gordon's mission, the loss of Berber, the siege of Khartum, the massacre of Baker's levies at El Teb, Graham's expedition to Suakim, and the hard-fought fights of the second Teb and Tamai, Wolseley's expedition up the

The massacre at Shekan.

Nile, with Abu Klea and the Gubar and Kirbekan, the second Suakim campaign and M'Neill's zariba. Everybody knows these stories, so gallant, so futile. I remember thirteen and fourteen years ago being enormously proud and joyful about Tamai and Abu Klea. I was very young. Read over the tale again now—the faltering and the folly and the failure—and you will feel that if Egypt has Baker's Teb and Hicks's ruin to wipe out, England was not so very far from suffering precisely the same humiliations. And in the end we failed, with what loss we still remember, and gave the Sudan away. The second act is not a merry one.

The third act.

The third was less tragic, but it was perhaps even harder to play. We pass by a mud-walled quadrangle, which was once the artillery barracks; through the gateway you look across sand to the mud ramparts of Halfa. That is the stamp of the days of reorganization, of retrenchment, of difficulties and discouragements, and unconquerable, undisappointed work. Those were the days when the Egyptian army was in the making, when Halfa was the frontier fortress. There are old barracks all over it, where the young fighting force of Egypt used to sleep half awake. The brown flanks of those hills beyond the rifle-range, just a couple of miles or so desertward, have seen Dervishes stealing up in broad day and insolently slashing and stabbing in

the main streets of the bazaar. Yet this time was not all unavenged insult: the long years between 1885 and 1896 saw Egypt defended and its assailants smashed to pieces. Little by little Egypt—British Egypt now—gained strength and new resolution.

Four battles mark the stages from weakness and abandonment to confidence and the resolution to reconquer. At Ginnis, on the last day but one of 1885, came the first Anglo-Egyptian strategical victory. The Mahdists had been tactically beaten before—well beaten; but the result had always been that we fell back and they came on. After Ginnis, fought by the British army of occupation, aided by a small number of the new Egyptian army, we stood firm, and the Dervishes were washed back. There were men of the Cameron Highlanders, on the Atbara, who had fought in that battle: it was not perhaps a very great one, but it was the first time the enemy had been brought to a standstill. He retired behind the Third Cataract.

The first Anglo-Egyptian victory.

Then followed three years of raid and counter-raid. Chermside cut up their advance-guard at Sarras; they captured the fort of Khor Musa, and Machell Bey of the 13th Sudanese drove them out within twelve hours. On the Suakim side the present Sirdar made head against Osman Digna with what irregulars and friendlies he could get together. Then in 1888 Osman waxed insolent and threw

Raids and counter-raids.

up trenches against Suakim. It became a regular siege, and Dervish shells fell into the town. But on December 20 Sir Francis Grenfell, the Sirdar, came down and attacked the trenches at the battle of Gemaizeh, and Osman fell back shattered: never again did he come so near his soul's ambition.

Osman Digna's repulse.

Meanwhile Wad-en-Nejumi — the great Emir, the conqueror of Hicks and the captor of Khartum—had hung on the southern frontier, gathering strength for his attack on Egypt. He came in 1889, skirting Halfa in the western desert, striking for a point in Egypt proper above Assuan. His Emirs got out of hand and tried to get to the Nile; in a hard day's tussle at Argin, Colonel Wodehouse and the Halfa garrisons threw him back into the desert again. Nejumi pushed on southward, certain of death, certain of Paradise. At Toski, Grenfell brought him to battle with the flower of the Egyptian army. At the end of the day Nejumi was dead and his army was beginning to die of thirst in the desert. Egypt has never been attacked since.

Finally, in 1891, Colonel Holled-Smith marched against Osman Digna's base outside Suakim, the oasis of Tokat. The Dervishes sprang upon him at Afafit, but the days of surprise and panic were over. They were rolled back and shattered to pieces; their base was occupied; and Suakim as well as Halfa had peace. Now all ground was finally main-

The turning-point of the drama.

tained, and all was ripe for attack again. England heard little of this third act; but for all that, unadvertised, hard-working, it was the turning-point of the whole drama.

[In 1882, the Primrose League is founded in England. The Phœnix Park murders are committed in Dublin. The Panama Canal is begun. Arabi Pasha rouses the Egyptians against foreign influence. The English fleet bombards Alexandria, an army is landed, and the Egyptian rebels are dispersed at Tel el Kebir. Arabi is banished to Ceylon and a British army of occupation remains. Italy seizes Assab Bay on the Red Sea, acquires territory north and south and founds the colony of Erytrea.]

Murder of Cavendish and Burke.

ITALIAN COLONIZATION ON THE RED SEA

(A.D. 1882)

PIETRO ORSI

SINCE 1870, the Rubattino Navigation Company had established in the Bay of Assab, on the Red Sea, a coaling-station for their steamers, which, ten years later, they ceded to the Italian Government. The latter took possession of this roadstead without any primary intention of annexation or self-aggrandizement, but later let itself be carried away by the tendency—now so widespread throughout Europe—to colonial development, and early in 1885, with the idea of pleasing and perhaps of assisting England, then planning the conquest of the Soudan, sent troops to occupy Massowah. Frustrated in their design of aiding the English expedition, by the fall of Khartoum and the Mahdist victory, the Italian contingent now set about establishing friendly relations with John, the Negus of Abyssinia, in the hope of attracting the commerce of the interior to the port of Massowah, but failed nevertheless to propitiate that suspicious prince. One of the Abyssinian chiefs,

Italy enters into relations with Abyssinia.

Ras Alula, with an enormous army, now repaired to Dogali, where he surprised and surrounded a column of five hundred Italians, who, after fighting for eight hours, using all their ammunition and killing a great number of the enemy, were nearly all massacred (January 26, 1887). Ras Alula.

Preparations were then made on both sides for war. Having delayed operations till a favorable time of year (January, 1888), the Negus arrived with a large army in sight of the fortresses occupied by the Italian troops, but fearing to give battle, retired. Meantime, Menelik, King of Shoa, one of his vassals, had rebelled against the Negus, who was thus threatened on both sides, and it was while fighting this new enemy that he received the wound from which he soon after died (March, 1889). There were several pretenders to the Abyssinian crown, and for some time the country was a prey to civil war. Preparations for war.

The Italian Government, headed by Francesco Crispi—who had succeeded Depretis on the latter's death in 1887, thought to profit by this state of affairs, and whilst it extended its possessions in the highlands by occupying Keren and Asmara, allied itself with Menelik, who, to triumph the easier over his rivals, made them the most ample promises. It seemed as if an era of prosperity might now be dawning for the new colony, to which Crispi gave the name of Erythrea. At the same time, Crispi's colonial policy.

an Italian protectorate was established over a vast zone of the Somali peninsula. Swayed by the now generally-felt enthusiasm, Crispi fondly imagined that he had laid the basis of a glorious future for Italy's colonial ambitions.

But that year of 1889 presented a terrible deficit in the country's finances—amounting, in fact, to more than two hundred million lire. To rectify it, new taxes, little relished by the country, had to be levied, especially as, owing to the impossibility of renewing the commercial treaty with France, who was piqued by the too Germanophile policy of Crispi, one of the principal outlets for the export of Italian products was now closed. Besides, the system of excessive and fruitless expenditure, initiated by the state, had unhappily been adopted by the communes and provinces, and brought about a serious economic crisis. In January, 1891, Crispi fell from power, and was succeeded by the Marquis di Rudini, and afterward by Giolitti, who both managed, by the pursuit of a more prudent policy, to reduce somewhat the deficit.

Crispi's fall

Meanwhile, the news from Africa was anything but satisfactory. Menelik had no sooner ensured the submission of all Abyssinia than he gave out that he had no intention of recognizing the Italian protectorate. The dervishes were also a fresh source of annoyance; they had been irritated by the Italian advance, and, in the December of 1893, attacked the fort of

The Italians are defeated at Agordat.

Agordat, but were defeated, leaving a thousand of their dead and seventy-two standards behind them on the field.

At this juncture, Crispi returned to the head of the government, and, after suppressing the Sicilian risings which had broken out from purely economic causes a little while before, urged General Baratieri, Governor of Erythrea, to further action in Abyssinia. Baratieri, in consequence, organized an advance against the dervishes, and, in the July of '94, succeeded in expelling them from Kassala and in mastering this most important position, which effectually secured the safety of the Italian colony on that side. In the meantime, the strained diplomatic relations between Italy and Abyssinia had resolved themselves into an open rupture. In view of the suspicious attitude assumed by Ras Mangascia in the Tigré, Baratieri thought it well to anticipate the Abyssinian leader's movements and succeeded, by forced marches, in surprising and defeating him at Coatit and Senafeh in January, 1895, and hence was enabled, without much opposition, to occupy all the Tigré.

Crispi returns to power.

However, that this was only the beginning of the war was hardly realized by the Italians. Ras Mangascia implored the intervention of Menelik, who managed to carry all Abyssinia with him in this struggle against Italy. Biding his time till the season was favorable, the Negus advanced with an army of more than

Advance of the Negus.

one hundred thousand men, against whom the Governor of Erythrea, insufficiently equipped, could only oppose a few thousand troops. This poverty of Italian resources was, in a great measure, due to the carelessness of the Ministry at home, who lacked proper information in the matter, and pursued a bold policy of expansion without saying anything to the country or asking Parliament for the necessary means to prosecute it. Baratieri, flattered on all sides for his preceding victories, grew, at last, quite accustomed to a position that was, in reality, bristling with dangers.

On the 7th of December, 1895, Major Toselli, at the head of only two thousand men, was attacked at Amba-Alagi by a numerous host of the enemy, and, after a long and heroic resistance, was, with the greater part of his men, killed.

Makaleh capitulates.

The Abyssinians now advanced and surrounded the fort of Makaleh, whose small garrison, under Major Galliano, maintained a gallant defence for nearly a month, for General Baratieri found it impossible to venture on their relief. The besieged, reduced to extremity through lack of water—the nearest supplies having fallen into the enemy's hands—had heroically decided to blow up the fort and fight their way through the Abyssinian ranks, when Menelik, impressed by their bold resistance or by the memory of the heavy losses he had lately sustained, sent

word to Baratieri that he would readily allow the garrison of Makaleh to march out with the honors of war, so they might rejoin the rest of the Italian troops concentrated at Adigrat. It was under such conditions that, on the 26th of January, 1896, Makaleh capitulated.

During this time, reinforcements had arrived from Italy, but the lack of proper commissariat organization increased the difficulty of providing for the needs of the soldiers among those arid mountains so far from the coast. General Baratieri continued to act on the defensive, contenting himself, however, with preserving a vigilant attitude in face of the Abyssinians, who, leaving Adigrat, now took the direction of Adowa. But eventually, impressed by the emphatic representation of the Ministry—which desired to satisfy public opinion by reprisals—and judging that an advance would probably decide the foe either to attack the Italians in their intrenched positions or to retreat, Baratieri, on the 1st of March, 1896, led his fourteen thousand men into action.

Arrival of reinforcements.

The Abyssinians were encamped in the environs of Adowa. Either through their opponents' ignorance of the ground, or through the unmeasured impetuosity of the first column, the wings of the Italian army divided, and the vanguard, instead of assuming a position wherein to wait the assault of the enemy, advanced as far as the latter's camp itself. The

Battle of Adowa.

Losses of the Italians.

Abyssinian troops, far outnumbering their antagonists, easily routed the first Italian column before the second could appear on the scene, and afterward defeated, in turn, the second and third bodies of troops as they came up.

Nearly a third of the Italian army was killed in this engagement—among the dead were Generals Dabormida and Arimondi, as well as Galliano, the gallant defender of Makaleh, who had, just before, been promoted to a lieutenant-colonelcy for distinguished merit—while another third, which included General Albertone, were taken prisoners. In spite of his victory, Menelik dared not advance further, and General Baldissera, who had just arrived at Massowah to supplant Baratieri in the supreme command, proved himself apt in reorganizing the troops of the colony and in minimizing the consequences of the defeat.

The news of the disaster at Adowa provoked keen indignation among the Italian people, who, not unreasonably, accused the government of having failed through want of knowledge, in the management of a difficult undertaking, and this feeling was generally approved by the nation. On the 5th of March, 1896, the Crispi Ministry fell, without so much as venturing to challenge a vote of the Chamber. Its colonial policy had never been popular in Italy, for the country

Fall of Crispi's Ministry.

was not rich enough to cope adequately with such undertakings, and the territory to be annexed promised no great resources. The unfortunate issue of the African campaign went to prove that the nation at large had more good sense in this matter than the government, which now had been much discredited in public opinion. The new Ministry, directed by the Marquis di Rudini, openly declared its desire to abandon Crispi's colonial policy, and set on foot negotiations for peace as well as for the release of the Italian prisoners in Abyssinia. After long and wearisome discussions, the captives were liberated, and a peace treaty was concluded, by which Italy renounced her claim to the Tigré and confined herself to the territory bounded on the south by the Mareb-Belesa-Muna line. Later, the fortress of Kassala was ceded by the Italian Government to the English, as useful to the latter for their Soudanese expedition.

Peace treaty concluded.

[In 1883, a Civil Service Act introduces competitive examination into the United States Government service. The French go to war with Madagascar. They also declare a protectorate over Annam and Tonkin. Maxim invents an automatic machine-gun. In 1884, Russia annexes Merv. In 1885, Eastern Roumelia revolts from Turkey and joins Bulgaria. Servia invades Bulgaria, but is driven back. Riel's rising of the half-breeds

Civil Service Act introduced.

is put down. Great Britain conquers Burma and declares a Protectorate over southern New Guinea. Pasteur discovers a cure for hydrophobia. In 1886, King Ludwig of Bavaria commits suicide. Russia fortifies Batoum in defiance of treaties. Alexander of Bulgaria is kidnapped by Russians. He is restored and resigns. The Canadian Pacific Railway is completed. Great Britain and Germany define their spheres of influence in the Western Pacific. Gold is discovered in the Transvaal on the Witwatersrand. The British East African Company is formed. The Siberian railway is begun.]

Pasteur's cure for hydrophobia.

Gold is discovered in the Transvaal.

THE GREAT SIBERIAN RAILWAY

(A.D. 1886)

JOHN GEDDIE

IN May, 1705, Peter the Great founded his new capital, thereby breaking out, through the channel of the Neva, "a window into Europe." In the same month, in 1891, the present Emperor, Nicholas II., then Czarewitch, cut the first sod of the greatest of Russia's engineering undertakings, the Trans-Siberian Railway, at Vladivostok, the "Golden Gate" of the East. If official calculations hold good, the vast work will be complete, from end to end, in the course of the summer of 1905, and the traveller will then be able to journey by rail, in a fortnight, from the shores of the Baltic to those of the Gulf of Tartary.

The first sod cut, 1891

Russians believe in auspicious anniversaries; and there will probably be an effort to make the opening of the railway across Siberia coincide with the second centenary of the founding of St. Petersburg. The one event is the complement of the other. What Russia needed most two centuries ago was light. What she now chiefly strives after is space. If it was necessary, in 1705, to open a

Russia's need of light and space.

front window into the Baltic, it will be felt not less urgent in 1905 to open a back door into the Pacific.

Russia would prefer to wait.

The ruling powers of Russia would perhaps have been glad, on several grounds, to have postponed for some time longer the task of taking up and pressing forward to completion a project that has been before their minds ever since the Crimean War, if not earlier. Economically and financially, Russia is not yet in the most advantageous position for tackling an enterprise so stupendous. Even if the estimates of cost are not exceeded, it will be for long a heavy drain on the resources of a country which has not much to spare for commercial adventures beyond the Urals. It will hamper and impede the progress, none too rapid, of internal reforms. But there were considerations that imperatively demanded that the work should be taken in hand without delay; and these were at least as much political and military, and even social, as connected with trading and industrial development.

The work urgent.

China has been giving the world further proofs of her decrepitude and helplessness. The two great Western Powers—Great Britain and France—have planted themselves firmly upon her southern border, and are striving, by the opening of new land and water routes, to obtain a commercial command of her rich back provinces that some

day may take the form of territorial appropriation. Germany is in the offing, eagerly watching for an opportunity of stepping in and claiming a share in the "partition of China." Above all, there has been the phenomenal rise of the Empire of Japan to the position of a great naval and trading power in the Pacific. Her recent easy triumph, by land and sea, over her bulky and inert neighbor was the final demonstration of the first-class importance of Japan as a factor in Eastern politics; it proved, moreover, that Japanese policy has before it a settled and resolute purpose, and behind it the impelling force of a united and patriotic national feeling.

Importance of Japan in the East.

While such movements were going forward, Russia could not afford to remain quiescent. She, too, must open her trade routes and establish herself firmly along the Chinese borderlands and on the shores of the Pacific—if possible, on waters unobstructed by ice all the year round—if she was to have a hand in the game in which she means to play the trump card. She must make her "contiguity to China" a real and effectual fact, and not a mere geographical expression. She must be ready and able to put down her foot and stretch forth her hands when the day comes for the dividing of the spoil. This may in part be done by the opening and improvement of sea and river routes. But obviously the one

Trade route for Russia.

strong and indispensable band for fastening the basin of the Amur to that of the Volga is the "link of steel" of a trans-Siberian railway.

Other reasons, not less weighty, demanded that the work should go forward in right earnest. Enormous as is the area of European Russia, the country is beginning to be found too narrow for a growing population already numbering over a hundred million of souls, who are, for the most part, directly dependent on the produce of the soil. In many provinces there is even now a congested rural population, with the natural consequences of increasing pauperism, and discontent, and recurring famines.

Enormous population of Russia.

The settlement of Siberia, therefore, is thrust upon her as a national necessity as well as a national good. Hitherto, during the three centuries she has more or less held possession, she has used Siberia as the lumber-room—nay, as the "cesspool"—of the Empire. The country is in many parts prodigiously fertile, and abounds in forest and mineral wealth. Important towns, the centres of agricultural, mining, and manufacturing industry, have sprung up on the banks of the great Siberian rivers and at their roots among the hills. What these cities—Irkutsk, Krasnoyarsk, and the rest—chiefly suffer from is their isolation; the vast distances, traversed only by sledge or lumbering *tarantass,* that separate them from each other and from the great centres of Eu-

Utility of Siberia.

ropean civilization and trade. Emigration has for many years been running with a quickened current across the Urals, which look more of a barrier on the maps than they are in nature. Colonization of the rich farming, stock-raising, and metalliferous regions of Siberia has begun in earnest. It needed but the opening of a railway to make the stream a flood.

The scheme of laying a line of railway from the Urals to the Chinese frontier and the Pacific had long been maturing in the minds of the rulers of Russia. But in the end, the decision in the crucial questions of route, point of departure, and terminus, and plan and time of construction, had to be taken with some degree of precipitancy. When the problem was finally settled by the Special Commission of 1890, three routes came into competition. One was a modification of a plan chosen fifteen years before, by which the Ural Mines Railway would have been connected with Nijni-Novgorod, and extended from Tiumen toward the east. Another was a prolongation of the Orenburg railway across the waterless and almost uninhabited steppes to the East, to the great Barnaul mining district and the skirts of the Altai chain. The route selected was a middle way. It is a continuation eastward of the line passing through Samara, Ufa, and Zlatoust, to Miass and Cheliabinsk within the borders of Siberia.

The scheme not new.

Three routes considered.

Its merits and demerits compared with the competing routes need not now be discussed. Among its advantages is the fact that it passes through the fertile and relatively well-peopled "Tchernozen" zone of the province of Tobolsk, avoiding alike the great marshes and forests and wide rivers of the north, and the arid and desert steppes to the south. It will feed itself, and feed the country behind and ahead, as it advances. In point of distance, there is not much to choose between the three routes, but what advantage there is is in favor of that adopted. It has further to be had in mind, that the other two are postponed only, not abandoned; that the destined tracks converge on each other and meet at Nijni Udinsk, fully a third on the way across Siberia; and that already the Ural Mines Railway is being coupled to the trans-Siberian by a connecting line from Ekaterinburg to Cheliabinsk.

Advantages of the route selected.

This latter town is taken as the starting-point of the Great Siberian Railway, and it must be remembered that on reaching it the traveller, say from Calais, will have already made a journey of wellnigh 3,000 miles overland. Beyond it, the line, as the route is at present laid down, traverses a distance of 7,083 versts, or, including branch lines, 7,112 versts, roughly, 4,800 miles, to Vladivostok. The route and plan of construction once resolved upon, the government lost no time in entering upon the work. The final decision was not

Cheliabinsk the starting-point.

taken until the end of February, 1891, at which date the Zlatoust-Miass line had not yet been carried on to the starting-point of the Great Siberian Railway at Cheliabinsk. Three months later, as has already been mentioned, the present Emperor had cut the first sod at the other, or eastern, extremity of the line, and entered upon the active work of direction, which was confided to a special government department of which his Majesty is president.

It will be strange if, all things reckoned, the cost to the Government of Russia falls much, or any, short of fifty millions sterling.

Besides this initial outlay, the working of it is certain to entail for many years a burden on the Russian treasury. The opening of the line for through traffic, it has been seen, will be the affair of the early years of next century. But the industrial and agricultural development of Siberia, and of the countries bordering on the Pacific, on a scale large enough to make this vast enterprise profitable, must be postponed to a date considerably more remote; and not in the conveyance of such high-priced goods as tea and silk is the overland route likely to compete successfully, under present conditions, with the sea route in the markets of Western Europe.

Profits of the enterprise.

On the other hand, the political, the social, and the economical influences of the Great Siberian Railway begin already to be felt.

Influences of the Railway.

Every year they will become more marked. One problem of extraordinary interest is being worked out along the line. Convict labor, under a gang system, is being applied to the building of the railway. In the western and central sections, at least, it is said to be attended with excellent results. For prisoners, eight months of railway labor reckons as one year's imprisonment, and exiles have their terms shortened by counting one year as two. They are working out their own salvation.

Use of convict labor.

A yet more tremendous question, for Russia and for other countries, is that of the free colonization of Siberia. This has at length begun in earnest. The running eastward of the line into the fertile plains of the Irtish and the Obi has been like cutting a gap in a dam. A rush of emigrants from the crowded communes of Great and Little Russia has followed, and every year it has grown in volume. The temptations held out by the government to the peasants to settle in the provinces of Tobolsk and Tomsk—cheap railway fares and a free allotment of forty-three acres of Crown land—do not seem extravagant, considering the remoteness of the scene and the severity of the winter climate. But they have been sufficient to set a great human tide flowing eastward.

Free colonization.

[In 1887, President Grévy is forced to resign in consequence of corruption by his son-

in-law, Wilson. Ferdinand of Coburg succeeds Alexander in Bulgaria. Stanley starts to find Emin Pasha and discovers the Albert Edward Nyanza. In 1888, County Councils are created in England. The Lick Observatory in California begins work. In 1889, the Panama Canal Company becomes bankrupt. The Crown Prince of Austria commits suicide. King Milan of Servia abdicates in favor of his son, Alexander. Brazil becomes a Republic. The British South Africa Company receives a charter. The Eiffel Tower is built. Japan sets up constitutional government. In 1890, in consequence of a divorce suit the Parnellites are disrupted. England cedes Heligoland to Germany. Spain receives universal suffrage. Germany, England and France agree on their African boundaries. The French capture Timbuctoo. The Forth bridge is completed. The Russian Jews are persecuted. Baron Hirsch organizes colonies in Argentina. The first May Day celebration of labor is held. The bank of Baring Brothers fails. In 1891, England obtains pre-emption of the Portuguese territories in Africa. In 1892, the Pope orders Catholics to accept the French Republic. In 1893, the Bering Sea arbitration in Paris decides against the United States. A World's Fair is held in Chicago. France gains territory and privileges in Siam. The Matabele are conquered in South Africa. New Zealand adopts the franchise for women.

Stanley discovers the Albert Edward Nyanza.

Brazil a Republic.

World's Columbian Exposition held.

President Carnot murdered.

In 1894, parish councils are created in England. President Carnot of France is murdered. The Dreyfus case is begun by the arrest of the captain as a spy. A revolt makes the King of Corea call upon China for assistance. Japan sends troops also and proposes joint action. After much dispute, war breaks out between China and Japan. The latter captures Port Arthur.]

THE BATTLE OF THE YALU

(A.D. 1894)

EASTLAKE AND YOSHI-AKI

THE victories achieved by the arms of Japan were very evenly divided between the two branches of the service. If the land-troops carried all before them at Phyŏngyang, Kangwasae, Newchwang, and a dozen other places, the fleet was no less successful off Phungdo, in the Yellow Sea, and at Wei-hai-wei. The naval engagement of the Yellow Sea, better known by the style of the Fight of Haiyang—an important island near the scene of the conflict—is unique in the annals of this century. For here, for the first time on record since the great change in naval construction, two fleets of the most modern and powerful type met in deadly warfare, the result being significant of the tremendous nature of the weapons now employed by "civilized" nations and the fury with which the battle was fought on both sides. It was a deadly grapple between two ancient foes, with all the skill on one side and all the victory; though the Chinese did not fall behind in point of bravery

First battle between modern warships.

Causes of China's defeat.

and determined pluck. According to naval experts in this part of the world, the Chinese were defeated primarily because of their execrable tactics, and secondarily because they had no ships so swift as one or two of those on the Japanese side. Moreover, the Japanese vessels fought intelligently, as a compact whole; while the Chinese warships, with the exception perhaps of the two great ironclads, failed to work in harmony and at no time brought their full strength to bear on the foe.

It was on September 16, 1894, that the Japanese fleet left the temporary anchorage at the mouth of the Taidong River. The next day, after a fruitless cruise near the Korean littoral, the fleet made for the island of Haiyang, an island of importance, as already pointed out, and one which commanded the approach to the Kinchow Peninsula. The *Yoshino, Takachicho, Akitsushima,* and *Naniwa,* in the order named, forming the First Flying Squadron, led the van, the flag of Rear-Admiral Tsuboi Kozo flying on the *Yoshino.* The following, Principal, Squadron was composed of the *Chiyoda, Itsukushima, Hashidate, Hiyei,* and *Fuso,* with the *Matsushima* as flagship, Vice-Admiral Ito Sukehiro, Commander-in-Chief, being on board. Close behind followed the gunboat *Akagi* and the ex-merchant-steamer *Saikyo Maru,* transformed into a cruiser for the time being. At 6.30 A.M. the island was sighted, and the harbor—a fine

Vessels of the Japanese fleet.

one there—shortly afterward reconnoitred. No signs of the enemy being visible, a course was shaped for Takushan, and the fleet proceeded onward after a short review, Talu Island being the objective. Steaming easily, the warships were enjoying the fine autumn day, when suddenly, at 10.50 A.M., thick smoke was seen on the port bow, low down on the horizon and northeast by east from the leading vessels. The enemy in sight. This was what the admirals had long and patiently been looking for; no doubt was entertained that the enemy was now close at hand. From the increasing volume of the smoke it was clear that the hostile war-vessels were numerous. Each ship therefore promptly cleared for action and beat to quarters.

The weather was exceptionally fine; the sea smooth and glassy, with just a faint ripple where the light breeze touched the surface. At five minutes past noon the *Matsushima* signalled to prepare to close with the enemy. The *Akagi* and *Saikyo Maru,* not being well protected, and the former a very slow boat, were ordered to go under the port bow of the Squadrons, thus getting out of the enemy's range. The Chinese formation was an irregular wedge, the *Ting Yuen* and *Chen Yuen*— Vessels in the Chinese fleet. the two great ironclads—leading, with the *Lai Yuen, Ching Yuen, Yang Wei,* and *Chao Yang* on the right, and the *King Yuen, Chih Yuen, Tsi Yuen* and *Kwang Chia* on the left: ten men-of-war in all. Some distance off to

the north, smoke was again visible, proceeding from the funnels of two or three Chinese warships kept in reserve.

The Chinese open fire.

At 12.50 P.M. the *Ting Yuen,* though still 6,000 metres off, opened fire from her large guns, the other members of the fleet speedily following suit. The shells fell near, but did not strike the Japanese ships, the sea about them being beaten into waves and fountains of angry water, so tremendous the impact of the missiles. This did not of course stop the steady, swift advance of the Japanese, who as yet had not fired a single shot. Five minutes later the distance between the two fleets was decreased to 3,000 metres, and the hitherto silent men-of-war now burst into a tremendous roar of shot and shell that seemed to rend the very heavens.

The Japanese attack.

All the big guns on the Japanese vessels were directed toward the upper decks of the *Ting Yuen* and *Chen Yuen,* the rest of the Chinese ships being fired at with guns of smaller calibre. The Flying Squadron had by this time steamed past the enemy's front and was getting round to their starboard side; and just as the four fleet men-of-war approached the Chinese rear, the Principal Squadron, then at a distance of 4,000 metres, rapidly assumed a wedge-shaped formation, thus sheltering the *Akagi* and *Saikyo Maru* on the starboard and taking the whole of the enemy's heavy starboard fire. At 12.58 P.M., a shell from the *Matsushima's* 32-centimetre

gun crashed through the upper part of the Chinese flagship's—the *Ting Yuen's*—largest mast, so that the latter was no longer able to make signals to the rest of the fleet. Taking advantage of this accident, the Japanese Principal Squadron opened out and surrounded the Chinese ships, firing most fiercely the while. The enemy, at a loss what to do, the flagship no longer directing them, steamed confusedly hither and thither, their formation being completely broken. Each acted independent of the rest, to the great loss of time and force. Some of the Chinese ships now caught sight of the *Akagi* and *Saikyo Maru*. Deeming these two an easy prey, they steamed toward them, entirely separating themselves from the rest. The Japanese vessels, on the other hand, maintained their original line and continued to fire at each ship with precision and terrible effect. Six of the ten Chinese ships had by this time caught fire, while the *Chao Yang* and *Yang Wei* got quite apart from the others. Some of the enemy's vessels approached the *Hiyei* and *Fuso*—both small warships—in the rear of the Principal Squadron. The *Hiyei's* position was, for a while, one of extreme peril, there being great danger of her getting rammed; yet with reckless bravery her commander thrust the ship directly between the powerful *Ting Yuen* and the *Chen Yuen,* this being the one possible chance of escaping destruction. The ma-

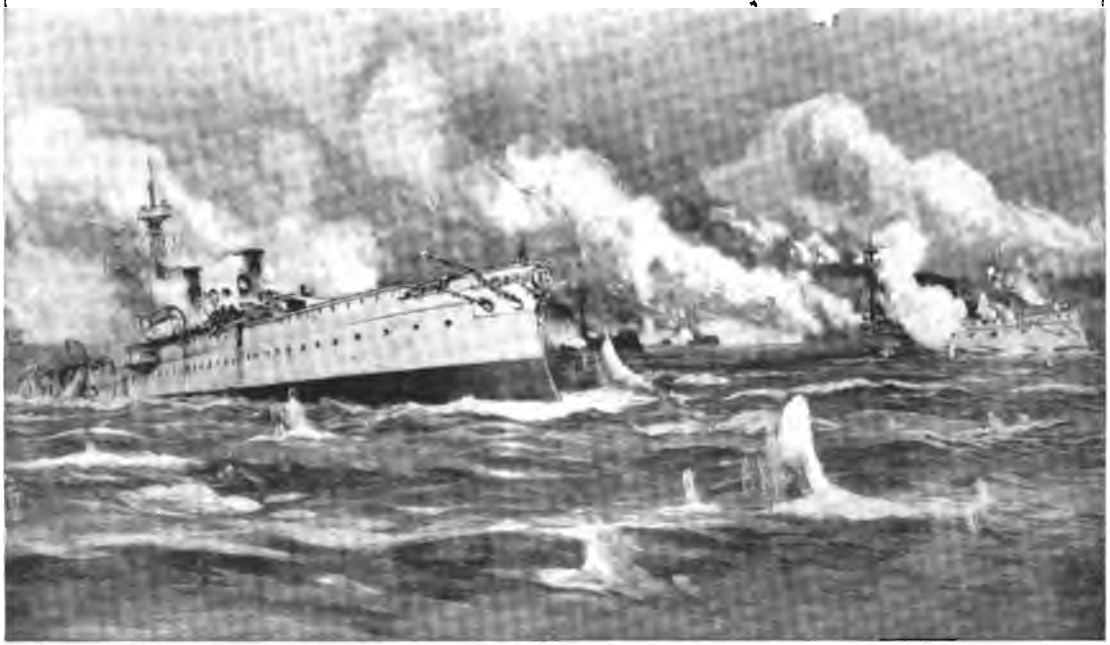
Loss of the Chinese formation.

Chinese ships on fire.

nœuvre was successful, and discharging her broadsides as she steamed ahead at full speed, the *Hiyei* passed through and got to the rear of the attacking vessels. The *Saikyo Maru* then steamed rapidly ahead to carry the news of the peril of the *Hiyei* and *Akagi* to the Principal Squadron; and when the message was made out through the clouds of smoke, the flagship at once ordered the First Flying Squadron to proceed to the aid of their comrades. The order was promptly obeyed, the four fine warships immediately steering westward. They steamed directly for the *Lai Yuen, Chih Yuen* and *Kwang Chia,* keeping the enemy on their port bow as they approached. The gunners stationed there fired rapidly and with magnificent precision, handling their huge weapons with skill and judgment. At a distance of 2,800 metres the cannon of the Flying Squadron proved too much for the three hostile vessels, which slowly turned and attempted to get back to their Main Squadron. This, however, the Japanese hindered them from doing, keeping a middle course between the three ships and the rest of their fleet; while the Principal Squadron, having come up to the rear, interposed between the Flying Squadron and the other Chinese vessels. The battle now reached its climax, the firing being stupendously heavy, the air dark with shot and shell, while the sun itself was obscured by the pall of smoke overhang-

Escape of the *Hiyei*.

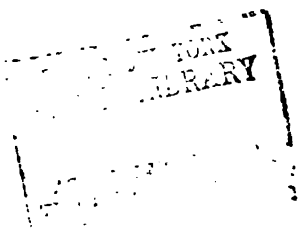
Success of the Flying Squadron.



THE GREAT NAVAL ENGAGEMENT OFF THE MOUTH OF THE YALU RIVER

From the drawing by J. Nash, R. I.

—Vol. VII, pages 2299-2310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ing the whole scene. Just before this, when the Flying and then the Principal Squadrons had gone to the relief of the *Hiyei* and *Akagi*, the cruiser *Saikyo Maru* was left quite alone, despite which fact she kept up fighting with the enemy. At 2.20 P.M., a 30.5-centimetre shell from the *Ting Yuen* struck and exploded back of the officers' ward on the *Saikyo*, causing great damage and cutting the steam pipe controlling the steering-gear. Signalling what had happened to the flagship, the *Saikyo* ran between the *Akitsushima* and *Naniwa*, getting on the port bow of the Chinese fleet, some vessels of which at once started to sink the injured cruiser, which did her best to get away from her opponents. About this time, moreover, the several men-of-war which the Japanese had believed to be the Chinese reserve, drew near. These were the *Ping Yuen*, *Kwang Ping*, and two torpedo-boats. They could not come up with the Principal Squadron, on account of the quick-firing guns, but noticing that the *Saikyo* was in great straits, the *Ping Yuen*, *Kwang Ping*, and the two torpedo-boats started to sink her. Everybody had been breathlessly awaiting the result of the torpedo-boat attack; and when the *Saikyo* was out of immediate danger the Chinese men-of-war surrounding her found themselves at close quarters with several Japanese war-vessels. The *Chao Yang*, which had first taken fire, now went down stern-foremost;

Jeopardy of the *Saikyo Maru*.

Sinking of the *Chao Yang*.

while the *Yang Wei*, seeing that her case was hopeless, ran toward the shallow water and beach of Talu Island.

A little before this, the *Ting Yuen*, which had failed in her attack on the *Saikyo Maru*, tried to get back to the rest of her comrades. Just as she was about passing in front of the Japanese Fleet, she suddenly changed her course and made as if she would either ram the *Matsushima* or else discharge a fish-torpedo at the Japanese flagship. From doing either she was prevented by the violent fire poured from the *Matsushima's* batteries. Sheering off to starboard, the *Ting Yuen* shaped her course at right angles to the Japanese line. On her port-bow becoming visible another broadside was poured into her from the *Matsushima's* guns. As the *Ting Yuen* was not more than 1,500 metres distant at the time, the effect of this broadside was tremendous, great holes being beaten into her side, whence volumes of smoke soon came pouring forth. A fire had started on board. In revenge, the *Ting Yuen* fired several rounds from her 26-centimetre guns, one shell entering the *Matsushima's* starboard quarter, plunging through the doctors' ward or surgery on the lower deck, severely shattering the steel fender, and, after passing down the torpedo-tube, finally destroying the barbette containing the 32-centimetre gun. Almost immediately afterward a 47-centimetre shell

The *Ting Yuen's* gallant fight.

tore through the *Matsushima* into her central torpedo-room, striking the mainmast and causing numerous fatal and other injuries. None the less, it was evident that great confusion reigned on board the *Ting Yuen,* in consequence of her adversary's steady fire.

The First Flying Squadron were now in hot pursuit of the *Kwang Chia, Lai Yuen,* and *King Yuen,* which were doing their best to get out of the fight. The *Kwang Chia* ran to the north of Bucha Island, while the *Lai Yuen* headed for Talok; the *King Yuen* being thus left alone. The firing from the four vessels composing the Flying Squadron was then concentrated on the wretched *King Yuen.* She was already on fire, and now keeled over to port, turning completely over. The flagship then recalled the Flying Squadron from further pursuit of the other two Chinese vessels, and the four swift men-of-war steamed obediently back to the Principal Squadron.

Flight of Chinese vessels.

In the meantime, the latter Squadron had been waging a furious war with the *Ting Yuen, Chen Yuen, Chih Yuen,* and *Ping Yuen,* the best ships the enemy still had afloat. The *Chih Yuen,* trusting to her powerful frame, bravely attempted to run down some of her persistent adversaries; but the Flying Squadron coming up, the devoted vessel was made the object of a tremendous assault. Shot through and through, she listed to starboard and sank. This occurred at just 3:30 P.M.

Sinking of the *Chih Yuen.*

The Principal Squadron now concentrated their fire on the *Ting Yuen* and *Chen Yuen,* the destruction of one or both of these big battleships being the great ambition of every vessel in the Japanese Fleet. At 3:30 P.M., just as the *Chih Yuen* sank beneath the waves, two shots from the 30.5-centimetre gun of the *Ting Yuen* wrought great havoc aboard the *Matsushima,* the lower deck on the port side being dreadfully cut up. A fire broke out on the sorely tried *Matsushima,* which took quite half an hour to extinguish. The *Ting Yuen,* it was simultaneously observed, had again caught fire.

Bravery of Admiral Ito

From first to last Vice-Admiral Ito, Commander of the Combined Squadrons, kept his place on the bridge. Yet his ship, the *Matsushima,* suffered most; the gunners were nearly all killed or wounded, their places being supplied by landsmen.

Flight of the Chinese

The result of the great sea-fight was that the *Chao Yang, Chih Yuen,* and *King Yuen* were sunk; the *Yang Wei* stranded; and the *Kwang Chia* and *Tsi Yuen* forced to run off to avoid sinking or capture. The remaining vessels, all more or less severely battered, steamed off in every direction, only the two great ironclads continuing the combat. Yet the *Ting Yuen* was now wreathed in smoke from the fire on board, and was thus incapable of prompt manœuvring; while the *Chen Yuen,* which stood by to assist her sister-ship,

had a very narrow escape, the Japanese ceasing to fire only as the light died out in the western sky, at which time the *Chen Yuen* was quite a distance from Admiral Ting's flagship. The First Flying Squadron was then ordered to give over chasing the fugitives, for it was now 5:30 P.M. and growing very dark.

Taking advantage of the gathering dusk, the Chinese fleet—or rather what there was left of it—turned southward for Wei-hai-wei. To offer to pursue them would only have brought confusion upon the Japanese vessels, for the enemy had half-a-dozen torpedo-boats, and these might have inflicted serious damage in the night time. Moreover, the *Matsushima* was indeed in an evil plight, so large a portion of her crew being *hors de combat* and the vessel greatly cut up from stem to stern. It was, under the circumstances, adjudged best to send the *Matsushima* back to Japan for repairs, and the flag of Vice-Admiral Ito was removed to the *Hashidate*.

Completeness of the Japanese victory.

And so the Japanese had not lost a single vessel; even the unarmored *Saikyo* was still afloat and ready to try conclusions with the enemy at any time. The victory of the Japanese was not only decisive, but even overwhelming, the Chinese losing five out of the twelve vessels that had taken part in the conflict: three sunk; one blown up, and one abandoned by the Chinese themselves.

[In 1895, the Baltic Canal is opened. The Chartered Company makes an abortive raid on the Transvaal under Dr. Jameson. China makes peace, ceding territory and opening new ports. Japan relinquishes the territory on protest by Russia, France, and Germany. Corea declares itself independent. In 1896, the Turks massacre Christians in Crete. France annexes Madagascar. Röntgen discovers the X-rays.]

The Jameson raid.

DISCOVERY OF THE X-RAYS

(A.D. 1896)

H. SNOWDEN WARD

INTENSELY interesting and undoubtedly valuable is the discovery of Professor Röntgen of a certain radiant force possessing properties hitherto unknown. To the physical scientist it is important, and to the surgeon and the public extremely interesting; but when the first wave of excitement is over, it will be seen that the most wonderful phenomenon connected with the discovery is psychological. It is a striking instance of the power of the press and of a popular enthusiasm; for, curiously enough, what has so largely attracted the press and public is not new, while the actual novelty of the discovery has been practically ignored. "The new photography," so far as most of the reproduced examples are concerned, is not new, nor is it necessarily dependent upon Professor Röntgen's new "X"-rays. The photographing of the living skeleton has long been possible; the reduction of sensitive silver salts by "invisible light" has long been practiced; of

A new radiant force.

"Invisible light."

the transparency of black vulcanite, pitch, etc., and the opacity of many substances that are commonly called transparent, we have long been aware. At the Imperial Institute, in 1896, Captain Abney dealt very fully and experimentally with some of the photographic properties of "invisible light," but did not claim that he had made any new discovery. In fact, speaking generally, we may say that the most picturesque and popular properties of Professor Röntgen's new rays are those which they largely share with rays that were previously well-known; while the actually novel characteristics, even now but partially and tentatively established, have attracted only the investigators. The practical value of the new rays is yet to be determined, but there can be no possible doubt as to the value of the publicity that they have given to the whole subject of "photographing the invisible." The impetus given to investigation, and the dragging of much useful knowledge from the dim obscurity of science—handbooks to the work-aday world of practical application—are boons for which we can heartily thank Professor Röntgen—and the newspaper correspondents.

Impetus to investigation.

It is not for me to belittle the discovery of Professor Röntgen, but rather to show, as far as can be done with our present insufficient data, what is its actual novelty. Two classes of men are certainly premature—namely,

those who pronounce it the greatest discovery of the age, and those who pooh-pooh it as valueless. The discoverer himself, like a true man of science, makes a perfectly modest and simple statement of his results in the *Sitzungsberichte der Würzburger Physik-medic Gesellschaft.* He there states that when experimenting with a vacuum tube covered with black paper impervious to ordinary light, and passing a high-tension electric current through the tube, fluorescent substances brought near the covered tube were seen to glow. This proved that some force was being generated within the tube that was capable of passing through paper that ordinary light could not pass, and also capable of exciting fluorescence. Röntgen's discoveries. From other points the discovery of the other properties of the unknown or "X"-rays was merely a question of time and patience. It was found that they acted upon the photographic plate similarly to light, and the means of observation principally used were, therefore, fluorescence and photography.

It soon became apparent that the new rays were able to penetrate many substances which to ordinary light were quite impenetrable. Several experiments led to the conclusion, afterward modified, that the density of bodies was the property mainly affecting their permeability. Thus it was found that a deal board was more transparent than glass or quartz. Density of bodies affects their permeability. On the other hand, it was found that when

glass, Iceland spar, quartz, and aluminium were tested together, the Iceland spar was much less transparent than the other bodies of about the same density. Another generalization, made by some of the English papers, was that organic substances were transparent, while inorganic were not. Probably this was based upon the experiments with the human hand, in which the flesh freely transmits the rays, while the bones (containing much earthy, inorganic matter) obstruct them.

Perhaps the most interesting fact about the new rays is that they can not, so far as is known at present, be reflected or refracted. A glass prism placed in the path of light-rays refracts them and spreads them out into a spectrum, but the "X"-rays go straight through the prism, and do the same with prisms of mica filled with carbon bisulphide and with water. This property prevents their being focussed with a lens—both glass and ebonite lenses have been tried. But the best test for reflection and refraction is to attempt to pass the rays through a powdered substance. Powders owe their opacity to ordinary light largely to the fact that their innumerable particles refract and reflect the rays to such an extent that they can only penetrate a small depth, even though the powdered substance be essentially transparent. Under this test it is found that powders transmit the "X"-rays as freely as the homogeneous substance. As we can not

Reflection and refraction.

reflect the "X"-rays, we can not produce photograms in the ordinary way in which light reflected from the subject is focussed by a lens to form the image upon a sensitive surface.

And now for a few words on other methods of photographing the invisible. I need not refer in detail to astronomical work—in which photography reveals myriads of stars and nebulæ which no telescope could enable the eye to discover—or the photographing of insects in flight, projectiles in their course, or other objects in extremely rapid motion; for these involve only the use of ordinary light. The light of day, refracted by a prism, forms a visible spectrum which can be both seen and photographed. But beyond the visible spectrum is a long series of rays on both sides, which are photographically active. By pure photographic means the spectrum beyond the visible violet has been proved to extend to at least nine or ten times the length of the visible portion; and beyond the red of the spectrum is a range fourteen times as long as the whole visible portion, the presence of which is partly proved by photography and partly by the bolometer. Passing from ordinary light, we find the cathode rays, which were shown by Hertz and Lenard to be generated in the Crookes tube, and which have been spoken of as Hertzian light. These possess very many of the properties of the "X"-rays, and will cause most, if not all, of the phenomena which have

Photographing the invisible

The cathode or Hertz ray.

surprised the public. They pass through many "opaque" substances, and are stopped by many "transparent" bodies. They seem incapable of reflection or refraction, but they can be deflected by a magnet placed in their path. And here comes the main difference between the new "X"-rays and the older cathode rays, for the former are not deflected by a magnet. The cathode rays, too, seem to have much less penetrative power in air, for the "X"-rays produce results at a distance from their source where the cathode rays have ceased to be active.

Sir Benjamin Richardson's method.

For photographing the bones within the flesh it is not necessary to use invisible light, and it is probable that the method of Sir Benjamin Richardson, described before the British Association in 1868, may be modified to give much better results than will ever be obtained with "X"-rays. In this case also the diseased structure can be seen and need not be photographed. By placing the body in an aperture with an intense light behind it, and the observer in an otherwise darkened room, it is possible to see fractures of bones, etc.

PHOTOGRAPHY

ALFRED RUSSEL WALLACE

THE improvements in the mode of production of light for common use are sufficiently new and remarkable to distinguish this century from all the ages that preceded it, but they sink into insignificance when compared with the discoveries which have been made as to the nature of light itself, its effects on various kinds of matter leading to the art of Photography, and the complex nature of the Solar Spectrum leading to Spectrum Analysis. This group of investigations alone is sufficient to distinguish the present century as an epoch of the most marvellous scientific discovery.

Photography and Spectrum Analysis.

Although Huygens put forward the wave-theory of light more than two hundred years ago, it was not accepted, or seriously studied, till the beginning of the present century, when it was revived by Thomas Young, and was shown by himself, by Fresnel, and other mathematicians, to explain all the phenomena of refraction, double-refraction, polarization, diffraction, and interference, some of which

The wave-theory of light.

were inexplicable on the Newtonian theory of the emission of material particles, which had previously been almost universally accepted. The complete establishment of the undulatory theory of light is a fact of the highest importance, and will take a very high place among the purely scientific discoveries of the century.

From a more practical point of view, however, nothing can surpass in interest and importance the discovery and continuous improvement of the Photographic art, which has now reached such a development that there is hardly any science or any branch of intellectual study that is not indebted to it. A brief sketch of its origin and progress will therefore not be uninteresting.

Rudiments of the art.

The fact that certain salts of silver were darkened by exposure to sunlight was known to the alchemists in the Sixteenth Century, and this observation forms the rudiment from which the whole art has been developed. The application of this fact to the production of pictures belongs, however, wholly to our own time. In the year 1802, Wedgwood described a mode of copying paintings on glass by exposure to light, but neither he nor Sir Humphry Davy could find any means of rendering the copies permanent. This was first effected, in 1814, by M. Niepce of Châlons,

The Daguerrotype.

but no important results were obtained till 1839, when Daguerre perfected the beautiful

process known as the Daguerrotype. Permanent portraits were taken by him on silvered plates, and they were so delicate and beautiful that probably nothing in modern photography can surpass them. For several years they were the only portraits taken by the agency of light, but they were very costly, and were, therefore, completely superseded when cheaper methods were discovered.

About the same time a method was found for photographing leaves, lace, and other semi-transparent objects on paper, and rendering them permanent, but this was of comparatively little value. In the year 1850, the far superior collodion-film on glass was perfected, and negatives were taken in a camera-obscura, which, when placed on black velvet, or when coated with a black composition, produced pictures almost as perfect and beautiful as the daguerrotype itself, and at much less cost. Soon afterward positives were printed from the transparent negatives, on suitably prepared paper; and thus was initiated the process which, with endless modifications and improvements, is still in use. The main advance has been in the increased sensitiveness of the photographic plates, so that, first, moving crowds, then breaking waves, running horses, and other quickly moving objects were taken, while now a bullet fired from a rifle can be photographed in the air.

The collodion-film.

With such marvellous powers, photography

Scientific uses of photography.

has come to the aid of the arts and sciences in ways which would have been perfectly inconceivable to our most learned men of a century ago. It furnishes the Meteorologist, the Physicist, and the Biologist with self-registering instruments of extreme delicacy, and enables them to preserve accurate records of the most fleeting natural phenomena. By means of successive photographs at short intervals of time, we are able to study the motions of the wings of birds, and thus learn something of the mechanism of flight; while even the instantaneous lightning-flash can be depicted, and we thus learn, for the first time, the exact nature of its path.

Aids in astronomy.

Perhaps the most marvellous of all its achievements is in the field of astronomy. Every increase in the size and power of the telescope has revealed to us ever more and more stars in every part of the heavens; but, by the aid of photography, stars are shown which no telescope that has been, or that probably ever will be, constructed, can render visible to the human eye. For by exposing the photographic plate in the focus of the object glass for some hours, almost infinitely faint stars impress their image, and the modern photographic star-maps show us a surface densely packed with white points that seem almost as countless as the sands of the seashore. Yet every one of these points represents a star in its true relative position to the visible stars

nearest it, and thus gives at one operation an amount of accurate detail which could hardly be equalled by the labor of an astronomer for months or years—even if he could render all these stars visible, which, as we have seen, he can not do. A photographic survey of the heavens is now in progress on one uniform system, which, when completed, will form a standard for future astronomers, and thus give to our successors some definite knowledge of the structure, and, perhaps, of the extent of the stellar universe.

Mechanical processes.

Within the last few years the mechanical processes by means of which photographs can now be reproduced through the printing-press, have been rendered so perfect that books and periodicals are illustrated with an amount of accuracy and beauty that would have been impossible, even twenty years ago, except at a prohibitive cost.

Color Photography.

It has long been the dream of photographers to discover some mode of obtaining pictures which shall reproduce all the colors of nature without the intervention of the artist's manipulation. This was seen to be exceedingly difficult, if not impossible, because the chemical action of colored light has no power to produce pigments of the same color as the light itself, without which a photograph, in natural colors, would seem to be impossible. Nevertheless, the problem has been solved, but in a totally different manner; that is, by the prin-

ciple of "interference," instead of by that of chemical action. This principle was discovered by Newton, and is exemplified in the colors of the soap bubble, and in those of mother-of-pearl and other iridescent objects. It depends on the fact that the differently colored rays are of different wave-lengths, and the waves reflected from two surfaces half a wave-length apart neutralize each other and leave the remainder of the light colored. If, therefore, each differently colored ray of light can be made to produce a corresponding minute wave-structure in a photographic film, then each part of the film will reflect only light of that particular wave-length, and therefore of that particular color that produced it. This has actually been done by Professor Lippmann, of Paris, who published his method in 1891; and in a lecture before the Royal Society in April, 1896, he fully described it and exhibited many beautiful specimens.

Professor Lippmann's success.

The method is as follows: A sensitive film, of some of the usual salts of silver in albumen or gelatin, is used, but with much less silver than usual, so as to leave the film quite transparent. It must also be perfectly homogeneous, since any granular structure would interfere with the result. This film on glass must be placed in a frame so constructed that at the back of it there is a shallow cell that can be filled with mercury which is in contact with

Long exposure.

the film. It is then exposed in the usual way, but much longer than for an ordinary photograph, so that the light-waves have time to produce the required effect. The light of each particular tint, being reflected by the mercury, meets the incoming light and produces a set of *standing* waves—that is, of waves surging up and down, each in a fixed plane. The result is that the metallic particles in the film become assorted and stratified by this continued wave-action, the distance apart of the strata being determined by the wave-length of the particular colored light —for the violet rays about eight millionths of an inch; so that in a film of ordinary thickness there would be about five hundred of these strata of thinly scattered metallic particles. The quantity of silver used being very small, when the film is developed and fixed in the usual way, the result is not a light-and-shade negative, but a nearly transparent film which, nevertheless, reflects a sufficient amount of light to produce a naturally colored picture.

Long exposure.

The principle is the same for the light-waves as that of the telephone for sound-waves. The voice sets up vibrations in the transmitting diaphragm, which, by means of an electric current, are so exactly reproduced in the receiving diaphragm as to give out the same succession of sounds. An even more striking and, perhaps, closer analogy is that

Analogy between sound and light.

of the phonograph, where the vibrations of the diaphragm are permanently registered on a wax cylinder, which, at any future time, can be made to set up the same vibrations of the air, and thus reproduce the same succession of sounds, whether words or musical notes. So, the rays of every color and tint that fall upon the plate throw the deposited silver within the film into minute strata which permanently reflect light of the very same wave-length, and therefore of the very same color as that which produced them.

Brilliancy of effect.

The effects are said to be most beautiful, the only fault being that the colors are more brilliant than in nature, just as they are when viewed in the camera itself. This, however, may perhaps be remedied (if it requires remedying) by the use of a slightly opaque varnish. The comparatively little attention that has been given to this beautiful and scientifically perfect process, is no doubt due to the fact that it is rather expensive, and that the pictures can not, at present, be multiplied rapidly. But for that very reason it ought to be especially attractive to amateurs, who would have the pleasure of obtaining exquisite pictures which will not become commonplace by indefinite reproduction.

An entirely new departure.

This beautiful and wonderful art, which already plays an important part in the daily life and enjoyment of all civilized people, and which has extended the bounds of hu-

man knowledge into the remotest depths of the starry universe, is not an improvement of, or development from, anything that went before it, but is a totally new departure. From that early period when the men of the stone age rudely outlined the mammoth and the reindeer on stone or ivory, the only means of representing men and animals, natural scenery, or the great events of human history, had been through the art of the painter or the sculptor. It is true that the highest Greek, or Mediæval, or Modern, art can not be equalled by the productions of the photographic camera; but great artists are few and far between, and the ordinary, or even the talented, draughtsman can give us only suggestions of what he sees, so modified by his peculiar mannerism as often to result in a mere caricature of the truth. Should some historian in Japan study the characteristics of English ladies at two not remote epochs, as represented, say, by Frith and by Du Maurier, he would be driven to the conclusion that there had been a complete change of type, due to the introduction of some foreign race, in the interval between the works of these two artists. From such errors as this we shall be saved by photography; and our descendants in the middle of the coming century will be able to see how much, and what kind, of change really does occur from age to age.

Exact records.

Importance in Ethnology.

The importance of this is well seen by comparing any of the early works on Ethnology, illustrated by portraits intended to represent the different "types of mankind," with recent volumes which give us copies of actual photographs of the same types; when we shall see how untrue to nature are the former, due probably to the artist having delineated those extreme forms, either of ugliness or of beauty, that most attracted his attention, and to his having exaggerated even these. Thus only can we account for the pictures in some old voyages, showing an English sailor and a Patagonian as a dwarf beside a giant; and for the statement by the historian of Magellan's voyage, that their tallest sailor only came up to the waist of the first man they met. It is now known that the average height of Patagonian men is about five feet ten inches, or five feet eleven inches, and none have been found to exceed six feet four inches. Photography would have saved us from such an error as this.

That such a new and important art as photography should have had its birth, and have come to maturity, so closely coincident with the other great discoveries of the century already alluded to, is surely a very marvellous fact, and one which will seem more extraordinary to the future historian than it does to ourselves, who have witnessed the whole process of its growth and development.

[In 1897, the Diamond Jubilee of Queen Victoria is celebrated. Greece openly sides with the Cretan insurgents and is invaded by the Turks. Greece speedily makes peace with loss of money and territory. Gold is discovered in the Klondike. The United States annexes Hawaii. Andree tries to reach the North Pole in a balloon and disappears. Germany acquires Kiao Chau, China, as indemnity for murdered missionaries. In 1898, the Austrian Empress is murdered. The United States battleship *Maine* is destroyed in Havana Harbor. Spain is ordered to evacuate Cuba. Dewey destroys a fleet at Manila and Sampson another at Santiago. Peace is made by the Spaniards relinquishing Cuba and Porto Rico and receiving $20,000,000 for the Philippines. General Kitchener, with an Anglo-Egyptian army, annihilates the Dervishes at Omdurman. An Anti-Foreign Society, called the Boxers, is formed in China to get rid of foreign influence.]

Hawaii annexed.

The *Maine* destroyed.

THE BATTLE OF SANTIAGO

(A.D. 1898)

WILLIS JOHN ABBOT

THE first ship out was the *Maria Teresa.* Behind her came the *Vizcaya,* the *Cristobal Colon,* and the *Almirante Oquendo.* To meet them all the ships of the blockading fleet were standing in toward the harbor, firing rapidly from every gun that could be brought to bear. According to the plan of the blockade, the American vessels were lying still and had to get under way,—a slow process for a 10,000-ton battleship when the enemy is forging past under full headway.

The Spaniards leave the harbor.

The *Maria Teresa* rounded the shoals and turned west. The little *Vixen,* which lay near the *Brooklyn,* let fly with her 6-pounders when she saw the huge bulk of the *Maria Teresa* turn toward her, and then prudently slipped away. But the rest of the American ships, with funnels belching black smoke, and turrets, hulls, and tops spurting out red flame and yellow smoke, came rushing down toward the enemy.

Retreat of the *Vixen.*

As the enemy came rushing out of the harbor, the American vessels to the eastward steamed down as fast as possible, maintaining a fierce fire the while from everything that could be brought to bear. The batteries on shore turned loose at the Americans, but no attention was paid to them. Nearest the shore was the *Indiana,* and she, too, was nearest the leading ship of the enemy at the moment of beginning the battle. The water about this battleship fairly boiled with the flood of projectiles that poured down from Morro and sped from the broadside with which the *Maria Teresa* opened. The *Indiana* scored more than one hit on the *Teresa,* as that ship was making her turn to the west, and then gave her attention to the *Vizcaya.*

The *Indiana* opens the fight.

Straight toward the fleeing enemy steamed the *Iowa* and *Oregon,* belching forth great clouds of smoke until they looked like huge yellow clouds on the water. Then came the time when a cool head and a clear eye were necessary for the captain of an American ship. As the battleships closed in on their prey, they overlapped one another, and careless use of the guns or a failure to make out accurately the target might have resulted in one of our ships firing into another. But so skilfully were our ships handled that at no time were they put in jeopardy from either the guns or the rams of one another, though at one time the *Oregon* was firing right across the decks of the *Texas.*

Need of caution.

The hapless *Maria Teresa* was the first ship to leave the harbor, and her end was swift and frightful. Upon her for a time the fire of all the American squadron was concentrated. The shells from the great turret-guns for the most part went wild, but the 5-inch and 6-inch shells and the storm of smaller projectiles searched out every part of the doomed ship, spread death and ruin on every hand, and soon had her woodwork ablaze. Her gunners for a time stood manfully to their guns, and the scarlet flames jetted viciously from her sides like snakes' tongues. Little smoke hung about her, and she stood out bold and black against the green background of the hills, a perfect target. A shot from the *Brooklyn* cut her main water-pipe; a shell, supposed to be from the *Oregon,* entered her hull and exploded in the engine-room; a 6-inch shell from the *Iowa* exploded in her forward turret, killing or wounding every man at the guns; while the tempest of smaller projectiles made the decks untenable, and by the din of their bursting silenced the officers' commands. Admiral Cervera himself was on this devoted ship. "He expected to lose most of his ships," said one of his officers afterward, "but thought the *Cristobal Colon* might escape. That is why he transferred his flag to the *Maria Teresa,* that he might perish with the less fortunate."

Destruction of the *Maria Teresa.*

Cervera's devotion.

The *Teresa* had come within the zone of the American fire at about 9.35 A.M. Within

fifteen minutes smoke was rising from her ports and hatches, indicating that she had been set afire by the American shells. The shot from the *Brooklyn* that had cut her water-main made it impossible to extinguish the flames, and, the fire from the American ships growing more accurate and more deadly every minute, she was beached at 10:15 and her flag hauled down. On the *Texas* the men raised a shout of joy. "Don't cheer, men," said Captain Philip from the bridge; "those poor fellows are dying." Admiral Cervera's own race for life and liberty lasted less than forty minutes. Clad in underclothes only, he tried to escape to the shore on a raft, directed by his son, but was captured and taken to the *Glouces-ter,* where he was received with honors due his rank. His voyage away from Santiago covered exactly six miles and a half, and his brief experience with American gunnery cost nearly half his officers and crew.

The deadly American fire.

Behind the *Maria Teresa,* at an interval of about 800 yards, came the *Vizcaya,* and under gathered headway rushed on to the west, passing the heavier battleships *Iowa* and *Indiana,* but receiving terrible punishment from their guns. In a newspaper interview on his arrival as a prisoner in the United States, a lieutenant of the *Vizcaya* spoke of the murderous effect of the shells from the *Indiana.* "The carnage inside the ship was something hor-

The *Vizcaya* follows.

rible and beyond description. Fires were started up constantly. It seemed to me that the iron bulkheads were ablaze. Our organization was perfect. We acted promptly, and mastered all small outbreaks of flame until the small ammunition magazine was exploded by a shell. From that moment the vessel became a furnace of fire. While we were walking the deck, headed shoreward, we could hear the roar of the flames under our feet above the voice of artillery. The *Vizcaya's* hull bellowed like a blast furnace. Why, men sprang from the red-hot deck straight into the mouths of sharks."

Destruction of the *Almirante Oquendo.*

But the *Vizcaya* lasted longer than the *Almirante Oquendo,* which followed her out of the harbor. While the former ship made her turn at the harbor's mouth and headed west on the coast, with the *Brooklyn, Oregon,* and *Texas* in full pursuit, the latter fell an immediate prey to the fire of the *Indiana* and *Iowa.* Though accredited with speed equal to that of her sister ships, she lagged that day of all times, and received a fiercer baptism of fire than fell to the lot of any of her ill-fated comrades. She bore the punishment five minutes longer than the *Teresa;* then, with flames pouring out of every opening in her hull, she made for the beach, hauling down her flag in token of submission, while men were dropping from her red-hot decks to the water.

Two great Spanish war vessels were thus destroyed in the first three-quarters of an hour, and the American fleet, as though hungry for more victims, was concentrating its fire now on the two that were left.

Leaving the *Teresa* and the *Oquendo* flaming and smoking on the beach, the chase swept on. The *Vizcaya* was still making a gallant running fight, and the greatest of all the Spanish ships, the magnificent *Cristobal Colon,* named after the man who had given to Spain this western domain she was now in process of losing, the ship which alone Admiral Cervera had hoped to save from the wreck he foresaw, was racing along the coast near the shore, and protected from the American vessels in some degree by the *Vizcaya.* While she fled, disaster fell upon the two torpedo-boat destroyers, *Pluton* and *Furor.*

Chase of the *Cristobal Colon.*

As the cruisers came out, Wainwright joined in the general cannonade with his little six- and four-pounders, but he did not join in the chase. With quick comprehension of the situation, he determined that the torpedo destroyers were his fair game, and he determined to await their appearance, meanwhile letting steam accumulate in his boilers in order to have plenty of speed when the crucial moment should arrive. The destroyers were slow to come out. For some reason yet unexplained Cervera, schooled tactician as he was, failed to handle them in the only way in which

Bad handling of the torpedo-boat destroyers.

they might be made of service. Instead of bringing them out of the harbor on the lee, or protected, side of the heavier vessels, and letting them slip out when our ships were nearest, he left them to make their appearance alone and undefended. As if this were not enough to ensure their impotence and their certain destruction, the destroyers themselves were manœuvred with an entire lack of that audacity and even desperation which alone can make one of these vulnerable craft formidable. Instead of dashing at the nearest American ship, and trusting to the rapidity of their progress and the small target they offered for their safety, both the *Pluton* and the *Furor* followed the example of the cruisers, and turned along the shore to the westward. Cervera's torpedo destroyers ran away. The gunners on the larger American cruisers sent a storm of projectiles from the secondary batteries after them, but the real, serious attack was left to the little *Gloucester* and Wainwright.

They run away.

In a cloud of smoke from her own guns, the former yacht sped forward, receiving and ignoring shots from the batteries and the nearer Spanish cruisers. One 6-inch shell would effectually terminate her career, and many were fired at her; but her captain had eyes only for the two destroyers, and only one desire, to come to close quarters with them before they could either be sunk by our battleships

or strike our vessels a blow. Either of the destroyers was more than a match for the *Gloucester*. Their batteries alone were of twice the power, without considering at all the engines of destruction which they could let slip from their torpedo tubes. In a few minutes from the moment the enemy was sighted, Wainwright was engaged with the two destroyers at short range, and under the fire of the *Socapa* battery. In a few minutes both destroyers began to smoke ominously, and the rapidity of their fire fell off. Then the *Furor* became erratic in her course, as though her steering-gear had been cut. Wainwright closed in savagely, and his men at their unprotected guns redoubled their efforts. Suddenly, amidships on the *Pluton*, there shot up a prodigious cloud of smoke and flame with a deafening roar and shock that could be felt across the water despite the thunders of the guns. A shell from one of the battleships—three afterward disputed for the honor—had struck her fairly, and exploded either the magazines or the boilers, or both. Broken in two by the rending blast, she sank like a stone. Balked of half his chosen prey, Wainwright pursued the other craft the more relentlessly. She was already clearly crippled, and made pathetic efforts to escape. At last, fairly shot to pieces, she hauled down her flag, and ran for the line of breaking surf, where her men leaped overboard to escape the fierce flames

The *Gloucester* pursues.

The *Pluton* blows up.

that were sweeping resistlessly from bow to stern below. Changed in an instant from a relentless enemy to a succoring friend, Wainwright manned his boats, and went to the rescue of the survivors on the burning ship. Many were saved, and the Americans had barely left the smoking mass of scorching steel and iron, when it blew up with a resounding roar, and the Spanish torpedo destroyers had vanished. They lasted just forty minutes under the American fire, and at no time had been a serious menace to any American ship.

End of the *Furor*.

The action had now continued for about three-quarters of an hour. The *Infanta Maria Teresa* and the *Oquendo* were blazing on the beach with their colors struck. The two torpedo destroyers were annihilated. The battleship *Indiana,* which had been distanced by the enemy in his rush to the eastward, had been signalled to turn in toward the shore, and give aid to the survivors on the burning ships. Two Spaniards only were still afloat,—the *Vizcaya,* running and fighting bravely in a hopeless struggle for life, and the great *Cristobal Colon,* which was rushing, with the momentum of a planet in its course through space, down the coast to the westward. In the chase of these two vessels, the *Brooklyn* held the place of honor. Her station on the blockade when the enemy came out was such as to give her a commanding position, and her speed kept her well to the front throughout.

Progress of the battle.

Position of the *Brooklyn*.

Next to her at the outset was the *Texas,* a battleship which for years the newspapers had been describing as unlucky and "hoodooed," but which in this battle developed marvellous speed and fought with reckless gallantry. The *Oregon,* third in the race at first, by a dash which no one thought possible for a ship of her weight and structure, passed the *Texas,* and actually came up with the *Brooklyn.* The fire of these three vessels as they sped along, and that of the *Iowa,* which was only a short distance in the rear, was concentrated on the unhappy *Vizcaya.* She had passed inside the *Oquendo* and the *Teresa* when those two doomed ships were receiving the attention of the entire American fleet, and had, until they were sunk, escaped serious injury, but now, with the fire of four of the biggest and best fighting-machines in the world concentrated upon her, the stanch and beautiful vessel began to go to pieces. Her great frame quivered under the repeated blows of the heavy shells that struck it, and rung like a boiler-shop in full operation with the incessant clangor of the smaller projectiles. An hour had passed. Of the American ships that started in the chase, only the *Brooklyn, Texas,* and *Oregon* were hanging like hounds on the flank of the quarry. The *Indiana* had been left behind. The *Iowa,* too, had stopped to give aid to the burning and drowning men on the two blazing warships. The *Colon* was

Fine work of the *Oregon.*

steaming ahead with no sign of weakness, but the *Vizcaya* seemed like a ship in distress. On her the fire of the three pursuers was concentrated. Admiral Schley, peering around the lee of the conning tower on the *Brooklyn,* said to his captain, "Get in close, Cook, and we'll fix her." The range was then 1,400 yards.

Fire concentrated on the *Vizcaya.*

The word was passed to the turrets and tops of the *Brooklyn* to aim at the *Vizcaya* only. The ship was carried in until the range was less than 1,000 yards, or little over half a mile, and the effect of the shots at that distance began to tell. The turrets were full of dead and wounded men, the machinery shattered, and the hull pierced below the water-line. Reluctantly abandoning the fight, for he was a brave officer and a gentleman, Captain Eulate turned his ship's prow toward that rocky and inhospitable shore on which already lay piled the wrecks of the *Teresa,* the *Oquendo,* and the *Furor.* As the ship swung about, a shell from the *Oregon* struck her fairly in the stern. The enormous mass of steel, charged with explosives of frightful power, rushed through the steel framework of the ship, shattering everything in its course, crashed into the boilers, and exploded. Words are inadequate to describe the ruin that resulted. Men, guns, projectiles, ragged bits of steel and iron splinters and indescribable débris were hurled in every direction, while flames shot up fiercely

She is run ashore.

from every part of the ship. Between decks she was a raging hell of fire, and when she struck the beach the watchers from the American men-of-war could see what looked like a white line reaching from her bow to the water, which was, in fact, the naked men dropping one after another over the side to seek the cool relief of the ocean from the fiery torment they were enduring.

Thus the *Vizcaya* dropped out of the fight at 11:06, according to the timekeeper on the *Brooklyn*. One hour and a half had been the period of her endurance of the American shells. The *Colon* was now left alone. Thus far her career had not been glorious, for she had simply run away, not making any effort to stand and give battle to her pursuers, and not even keeping up a very fast fire from her guns. In her speed was her one hope of escape, and her captain trusted to it wholly. From the very first shot of the battle the Spaniards had done nothing but run. Their fire, such as it was, was only intended as an aid to their escape. Had Cervera come out of Santiago intent upon fighting a desperate battle, he might indeed have lost all his ships, but in all probability he would have taken at least one of the American vessels to the bottom with him. His running fight only resulted in the loss of all his ships without inflicting the slightest loss upon the Americans. The *Colon* adhered strictly to the plan which had

Flight of the *Colon*.

thus far characterized the Spanish tactics. It was quickly evident to those on the foremost of the pursuing ships that there could be no escape for the fugitive. Even had not the Americans developed unexpected speed, the course of the ships was such that the *Colon* would inevitably be cut off. A cape jutted out into the ocean at some distance before her, which she would have to round. The *Brooklyn,* being further out to sea, was headed for that headland in a direct line, while the doomed *Colon* had a long curve to make to reach it. A signal from the *Brooklyn* suggested to the *Oregon* that she try one of her 13-inch guns on the chase. The great cannon flashed and roared from the forward turret, and the shell, which rushed past the *Brooklyn* with a noise like a railway-train, fell short. On they sped a little further, the *Oregon* visibly gaining on the fastest ship of the Spanish navy, a battleship built for weight and solidity overhauling a cruiser built for speed. Presently another shell was tried. It fell nearer the fugitive, near enough for the captain of the fleeing foe to read in its splash in the water the death-warrant of his ship. At such a moment some men would turn fiercely and sell their lives as dearly as might be, but that instinct was lacking to the Spaniard. Instead, he turned his almost uninjured ship toward the shore and beached her, hauling down his flag as she struck. Either before the surren-

No possibility of escape.

The *Colon* is beached.

der or after, her engineer's crew opened and broke the sea valves so as to destroy the ship. If this was done before the flag was hauled down, it was a legitimate and proper act; if after, it was dishonorable and treacherous. Captain Cook went in a boat to take possession of the prize, his crew being ordered not to cheer or exult over the vanquished. The ship had been struck but eight times, and not by shells of large calibre, and she would have been a useful prize but for this sly work below. There were plain indications that officers and men had been drinking heavily. An effort was made to save her by the *New York,* which came up just after the surrender. Captain Chadwick, seeing the ship beached and fearing that she would slip off and sink in deep water, laid the nose of the *New York* up against her stern and pushed her gently but firmly up the shelving strand. The manœuvre was useless. Before another day the great cruiser had filled and rolled over on her side and lay a perfect wreck on the desolate and uninhabited shore of Cuba at the mouth of Rio Tarquino. It was the exact spot where the ill-fated *Virginius* expedition tried to land. More scores against Spain than that set down on account of the *Maine* were wiped out that day.

Drunkenness of the crew.

So ended, after less than four hours' fighting,—for the *Colon* surrendered at 1:15 P.M., —a naval battle that possesses many extraor-

End of Spanish naval power.

dinary and unique qualities. It completed the wreck of Spanish naval power which had been in slow and interrupted progress since our Anglo-Saxon progenitors strewed the Channel with the wrecks of the Invincible Armada. It dealt the decisive stroke in the war which deprived Spain of her last remnant of American colonies. It was of absorbing interest to naval experts in all parts of the world, because it was the only considerable battle in which heavy men-of-war of the modern type and with modern armament had ever been pitted against each other on anything like equal terms. And it was unique in that, while the defeated fleet lost six ships, more than 600 men killed and drowned, and 1,800 prisoners, many of them wounded, the victors had but one man killed and one wounded.

THE BATTLE OF OMDURMAN

(A.D. 1898)

G. W. STEEVENS

NIGHT stole quietly into the sky behind us; there was no sound from the plain or the hills before us; there was hardly a sound from our own line. Everybody was very silent, but very curious. Would they be so mad as to come out and run their heads into our fire? It seemed beyond hoping for; yet certainly they had been full of war the day before. But most of us were expecting instantly the order to advance on Omdurman. Speculations in the dawn.

A trooper rose out of the dimness from behind the shoulder of Gebel Surgham, grew larger and plainer, spurred violently up to the line and inside. A couple more were silhouetted across our front. Then the electric whisper came racing down the line; they were coming. The Lancers came in on the left; the Egyptian mounted troops drew like a curtain across us from left to right. As they passed a flicker of white flags began to extend and fill the front in their place. The noise of something began to creep in upon us; it cleared and divided into the tap of drums and The enemy is coming.

the far-away surf of raucous war-cries. A shiver of expectancy thrilled along our army, and then a sigh of content. They were coming on. Allah help them! they were coming on.

It was now half-past six. The flags seemed still very distant, the roar very faint, and the thud of our first gun was almost startling. It may have startled them, too, but it startled them into life. The line of flags swung forward, and a mass of white flying linen swung forward with it too. They came very fast, and they came very straight; and then presently they came no further. With a crash the bullets leaped out of the British rifles. It began with the Guards and Warwicks—section volleys at 2,000 yards; then, as the Dervishes edged rightward, it ran along to the Highlanders, the Lincolns, and to Maxwell's Brigade. The British stood up in double rank behind their zariba; the blacks lay down in their shelter-trench; both poured out death as fast as they could load and press trigger. Shrapnel whistled and Maxims growled savagely. From all the line came perpetual fire, fire, fire, and shrieked forth in great gusts of destruction.

The first attack.

And the enemy? No white troops would have faced that torrent of death for five minutes, but the Baggara and the blacks came on. The torrent swept into them and hurled them down in whole companies. You saw a rigid

The enemy's bravery.

line gather itself up and rush on evenly; then before a shrapnel shell or a Maxim the line suddenly quivered and stopped. The line was yet unbroken, but it was quite still. But other lines gathered up again, again, and yet again; they went down, and yet others rushed on. Sometimes they came near enough to see single figures quite plainly. One old man with a white flag started with five comrades; all dropped, but he alone came bounding forward to within 200 yards of the 14th Sudanese. Then he folded his arms across his face, and his limbs loosened, and he dropped sprawling to earth beside his flag.

The persistent charges.

It was the last day of Mahdism, and the greatest. They could never get near, and they refused to hold back. By now the ground before us was all white with dead men's drapery. Rifles grew red-hot; the soldiers seized them by the slings and dragged them back to the reserve to change for cool ones. It was not a battle, but an execution.

The slaughter.

In the middle of it all you were surprised to find that we were losing men.

But loss on this scale was not to be considered beside the awful slaughter of the Dervishes. If they still came on our men needed only time and ammunition and strength to point a rifle to kill them off to the very last man. Only by now—small wonder—they were not coming on. They were not driven back; they were all killed in coming on. One

section of fire after another hushed, and at eight o'clock the village and the plain were still again. The last shell had burst over the last visible group of Dervishes; now there was nothing but the unbending, grimly expectant line before Agaiga and the still carpet of white in front.

Advance to Omdurman

We waited half an hour or so, and then the sudden bugle called us to our feet. "Advance," it cried; "to Omdurman!" added we. Slowly the force broke up, and expanded.

Movement was slow, since the leading brigades had to wait till the others had gone far enough inland to take their positions. We passed over a corner of the field of fire, and saw for certain what awful slaughter we had done. The bodies were not in heaps—bodies hardly ever are; but they spread evenly over acres and acres. And it was very remarkable, if you remembered the Atbara, that you saw hardly a black; nearly all the dead had the high forehead and taper cheeks of the Arab. The Baggara had been met at last, and he was worth meeting. Some lay very composedly, with their slippers placed under their heads for a last pillow; some knelt, cut short in the middle of a last prayer. Others were torn to pieces, vermilion blood already drying on brown skin, killed instantly beyond doubt. Others, again, seemingly as dead as these, sprang up as we approached, and rushed savagely, hurling spears at the nearest enemy. They were

The dead Baggara.

bayoneted or shot. Once again the plain seemed empty, but for the advancing masses and the carpet of reddened white and broken bodies underfoot.

It was now twenty minutes to ten. The British had crested a low ridge between Gebel Surgham and the Nile; Maxwell's brigade was just ascending it, Lewis's just coming up under the hill. Men who could go where they liked were up with the British, staring hungrily at Omdurman. Suddenly from rearward broke out a heavy crackle of fire. We thought perhaps a dozen men or so had been shamming dead; we went on staring at Omdurman. But next instant we had to turn and gallop hot-heeled back again. For the crackle became a crashing, and the crashing waxed to a roar. Dervishes were firing at us from the top of Gebel Surgham, Dervishes were firing behind and to the right of it. The 13th Sudanese were bounding up the hill; Lewis's brigade had hastily faced to its right westward, and was volleying for life; Macdonald's beyond, still facing northward, was a sheet of flashes and a roll of smoke. What was it? Had they come to life again? No time to ask; reinforcements or ghosts, they were on us, and the battle was begun all again.

The second attack.

Renewal of the battle.

To understand, you must hear now what we only heard afterward. The Dervish army, it appeared, had not returned to Omdurman on the night of the 1st, but had bivouacked—

The Khalifa divides his army.

40,000 to 50,000 of them—behind Gebel Surgham, southwestward from Agaiga. The Khalifa had doubtless expected a sudden attack at daybreak, as at Firket, at Abu Hamed, on the Atbara; as we marched by night to our positions before Omdurman he must have designed to spring upon our right flank. When day broke and no enemy appeared he divided his army into three corps. The first, under Osman Azrak, attacked the village; the second, with the green banner of Ali Wad Helu —with him Abdullahi's eldest son, the Sheik-ed-Din—moved toward Kerreri Heights to envelop our right; the third, under Abdullahi himself and his brother Yakub, remained behind Surgham, ready, as need might be, to envelop our left, or to act as reserve and bar our road to Omdurman.

Broadwood in difficulties.

What befell the first you know; Osman Azrak died with them. The second spread out toward our right, and there it fell in with the Egyptian cavalry, horse-battery, and camel-corps. When Broadwood Bey fell back before the attack, he sent word of its coming to the Sirdar, and received orders to remain outside the trench and keep the enemy in front, instead of letting them get round the right. Accordingly, he occupied the Heights of Kerreri. But the moment he got to the top he found himself in face of Wad Helu's unsuspected army-corps—12,000 to 15,000 men against less than 2,000—and the moment he

saw them they began swarming up the hill. There was just a moment for decision, but one moment is all that a born cavalry general needs. The next his galloper was flying with the news to the Sirdar, and the mounted troops were retreating northward. The choice lay between isolation, annihilation, or retreat on Agaiga and envelopment of the right. Broadwood chose the first, but even for that the time was short enough. The camels floundered on the rocky hillside; the guns dragged; the whole mass of Dervishes pursued them with a pelting fire. Two guns lost all their horses and were abandoned; the camel-corps alone had over sixty men hit. As for the cavalry, they went back very hard pressed, covering their comrades' retreat and their own by carbine fire. If the Egyptian army but gave Victoria Crosses, there were many earned that day. Man after man rode back to bring in dismounted officers, and would hardly be dissuaded from their endeavor when it was seen the rescued were plainly dead. It was the great day of trial—the day the pick of our cavalry officers have worked for through a weary decade and more—and the Fayum fellah fought like a hero and died like a man. One or two short of forty killed and wounded was the day's loss; but they came off handsomely. The army of the green flag was now on Kerreri Heights, between them and the camp; but with Broadwood's force unbroken

British losses.

Gallantry of the Fayum fellahs.

behind it, it paused from the meditated attack on the Egyptian right. In the pause, three of the five gunboats caught it, and pepper-castered it over with shell and Maxim fire. It withdrew from the river toward the centre again: the instant a way was cleared the outpaced camel-corps was passed back to Agaiga. The cavalry hung upon the green flag's left, till they withdrew clean westward and inland; then it moved placidly back to the infantry again.

Thus much for the right; on the left the British cavalry were in the stress of an engagement, less perfectly conducted, even more hardily fought out. They left the zariba the moment the attack burned out, and pricked eagerly off to Omdurman. Verging somewhat westward, to the rear of Gebel Surgham, they came on 300 Dervishes. Their scouts had been over the ground a thousand yards ahead of them, and it was clear for a charge. Only to cut them off it was thought better to get a little west of them, then left wheel, and thus gallop down on them and drive them away from their supports. The trumpets sang out the order, the troops glided into squadrons, and, four squadrons in line, the 21st Lancers swung into their first charge.

Advance of the cavalry.

Knee to knee they swept on till they were but 200 yards from the enemy. Then suddenly—then in a flash—they saw the trap. Between them and the 300 there yawned sud-

The Lancers' charge.

denly a deep ravine; out of the ravine there sprang instantly a cloud of dark heads and a brandished lightning of swords, and a thunder of savage voices. Mahmud smiled when he heard the tale in prison at Halfa, and said it was their favorite stratagem. It had succeeded. Three thousand, if there was one, to a short four hundred; but it was too late to check now. Must go through with it now! The blunders of British cavalry are the fertile seed of British glory: knee to knee the Lancers whirled on. One hundred yards—fifty—knee to knee—

Slap! "It was just like that," said a captain, bringing his fist hard into his open palm. Through the swordsmen they shore without checking—and then came the khor. The colonel at their head, riding straight through everything without sword or revolver drawn, found his horse on its head, and the swords swooping about his own. He got the charger up again, and rode on straight, unarmed, through everything. The squadrons followed him down the fall. Horses plunged, blundered, recovered, fell; Dervishes on the ground lay for the hamstringing cut; officers pistolled them in passing over, as one drops a stone into a bucket; troopers thrust till lances broke, then cut; everybody went on straight, through everything.

The Dervish trap.

And through everything clean out the other side they came—those that kept up or got up

in time. The others were on the ground—in pieces by now, for the cruel swords shore through shoulder and thigh, and carved the dead into fillets. Twenty-four of these, and of those that came out over fifty had felt sword or bullet or spear.

Forbearing a second charge, the Lancers dismounted and opened fire; the carbines at short range took an opulent vengeance for the lost. Back, back, back they drove them, till they came into the fire of the 32d Battery. The shrapnel flew shrieking over them; the 3,000 fell all ways, and died.

Death of the 3,000.

All this from hearsay; now to go back to what we saw. When the Sirdar moved his brigades southward he knew what he was doing. He was giving his right to an unbeaten enemy; with his usual daring he made it so. His game now was to get between the Dervishes and Omdurman. Perhaps he did not guess what a bellyful of beating the unbeaten enemy would take; but he trusted to his generals and his star, and, as always, they bore him to victory.

The blacks of the 13th Battalion were storming Gebel Surgham. Lewis and Macdonald, facing west and south, had formed a right angle. They were receiving the fire of the Khalifa's division, and the charge of the Khalifa's horsemen; behind these the Khalifa's huge black standard was flapping raven-like. The Baggara horsemen were few and ill-

The Baggara horsemen.

mounted—perhaps 200 altogether—but they rode to get home or die. They died. There was a time when one galloping Baggara would have chased a thousand Egyptians, but that time is very long past. The fellaheen stood like a wall, and aimed steadily at the word; the chargers swerved toward Macdonald. The blacks, as cool as any Scotsmen, stood and aimed likewise; the last Baggara fell at the muzzles of the rifles. Our fire went on, steady, remorseless. The Remington bullets piped more and more rarely overhead, and the black heads thinned out in front. A second time the attack guttered and flickered out. It was just past ten. Once more to Omdurman!

Two minutes' silence. Then once more the howling storm rushed down upon us; once more crashed forth the answering tempest. This time it burst upon Macdonald alone—from the northwestward upon his right flank, spreading and gathering to his right rear. For all their sudden swiftness of movements the Dervishes throughout this day never lost their formation; their lines drove on as rigidly as ours, regiment alongside regiment in lines of six and eight and a dozen ranks, till you might have fancied the Macedonian phalanx was alive again. Left and front and right and rear the masses ate up the desert—12,000 unbroken fast and fearless warriors leaping round 3,000. The third attack.

Now began the fiercest fight of that fierce day. The Khalifa brought up his own black

banner again; his stanchest die-hards drove it into the earth and locked their ranks about it. The green flag danced encouragement to the Allah-intoxicated battalions of Wad Helu and the Sheik-ed-Din. It was victory or Paradise now.

Victory or Paradise.

For us it was victory or shredded flesh and bones unburied, crackling under the red slippers of Baggara victors. It was the very crux and crisis of the fight. If Macdonald went, Lewis on his left and Collinson and the supporting camel-corps and the newly returned cavalry, all on his right or rear, must all go too. The Second British and Second Egyptian Brigades were far off by now, advancing by the left of Surgham hill; if they had to be recalled the Khalifa could walk back into his stronghold, and then all our fighting was to begin anew. But Hunter Pacha was there and Macdonald Bey was there, born fighting men both, whom no danger can flurry and no sudden shift in the kaleidoscope of battle disconcert. Hunter sent for Wauchope's first British Brigade to fill the gap between Macdonald and Lewis. The order went to General Gatacre first instead of the Sirdar: with the soldier's instinct he set the brigade moving on the instant. The khaki columns faced round and edged rightward, rightward till the fighting line was backed with 3,000 Lee-Metfords, which no man on earth could face and live. Later the Lincolns were moved further

Macdonald's peril.

still on to Macdonald's right. They dispute with the Warwicks the title of the best-shooting regiment in the British army; the men they shot at will dispute no claim of the Lincolns forever.

But the cockpit of the fight was Macdonald's. The British might avenge his brigade; it was his to keep it and to kill off the attack. To meet it he turned his front through a complete half-circle, facing successively south, west, and north. Every tactician in the army was delirious in his praise: the ignorant correspondent was content to watch the man and his blacks. "Cool as on parade," is an old phrase; Macdonald Bey was very much cooler. Beneath the strong, square-hewn face you could tell that the brain was working as if packed in ice. He sat solid on his horse, and bent his black brows toward the green flag and the Remingtons. Then he turned to a galloper with an order, and cantered easily up to a battalion-commander. Magically the rifles hushed, the stinging powder smoke wisped away, and the companies were rapidly threading back and forward, round and round, in and out, as if it were a figure of a dance. In two minutes the brigade was together again in a new place. The field in front was hastening toward us in a whity-brown cloud of Dervishes. An order. Macdonald's jaws gripped and hardened as the flame spurted out again, and the whity-brown cloud quiv-

His masterly tactics.

The gallant black brigade.

ered and stood still. He saw everything; knew what to do; knew how to do it; did it. At the fire he was ever brooding watchfully behind his firing-line; at the cease fire he was instantly in front of it: all saw him, and knew that they were being nursed to triumph.

His blacks of the 9th, 10th, and 11th, the historic fighting regiments of the Egyptian army, were worthy of their chief. The 2d Egyptian, brigaded with them and fighting in the line, were worthy of their comrades, and of their own reputation as the best disciplined battalion in the world. A few had feared that the blacks would be too forward, the yellows too backward: except that the blacks, as always, looked happier, there was no difference at all between them. The Egyptians sprang to the advance at the bugle; the Sudanese ceased fire in an instant silence at the whistle. They were losing men, too, for though eyes were clamped on the Dervish charges, the Dervish fire was brisk. Man after man dropped out behind the firing-line.

Egyptian losses.

Here was a white officer with a red-lathered charger; there a black stretched straight, bareheaded in the sun, dry-lipped, uncomplaining, a bullet through his liver; two yards away a dead driver by a dead battery mule, his whip still glued in his hand. The table of loss topped 100—150—neared 200. Still they stood, fired, advanced, fired, changed front, fired—firing, firing always, deaf in the din, blind in

the smarting smoke, hot, dry, bleeding, bloodthirsty, enduring the devilish fight to the end.

And the Dervishes? The honor of the fight must still go with the men who died. Our men were perfect, but the Dervishes were superb—beyond perfection. It was their largest, best, and bravest army that ever fought against us for Mahdism, and it died worthily of the huge empire that Mahdism won and kept so long. Their riflemen, mangled by every kind of death and torment that man can devise, clung round the black flag and the green, emptying their poor, rotten, home-made cartridges dauntlessly. Their spearmen charged death every minute hopelessly. Their horsemen led each attack, riding into the bullets till nothing was left but three horses trotting up to our line, heads down, saying, "For goodness' sake, let us in out of this." Not one rush, or two, or ten—but rush on rush, company on company, never stopping, though all their view that was not unshaken enemy was the bodies of the men who had rushed before them. A dusky line got up and stormed forward: it bent, broke up, fell apart, and disappeared. Before the smoke had cleared, another line was bending and storming forward in the same track.

Heroism of the Dervishes.

It was over. The avenging squadrons of the Egyptian cavalry swept over the field. The Khalifa and the Sheik-ed-Din had galloped back to Omdurman. Ali Wad Helu was

Flight of the Khalifa

borne away on an angareb with a bullet through his thigh-bone. Yakub lay dead under his brother's banner. From the green army there now came only death-enamored desperadoes, strolling one by one toward the rifles, pausing to shake a spear, turning aside to recognize a corpse, then, caught by a sudden jet of fury, bounding forward, checking, sinking limply to the ground. Now under the black flag in a ring of bodies stood only three men, facing the three thousand of the Third Brigade. They folded their arms about the staff and gazed steadily forward. Two fell. The last Dervish stood up and filled his chest; he shouted the name of his God and hurled his spear. Then he stood quite still, waiting. It took him full; he quivered, gave at the knees, and toppled with his head on his arms and his face toward the legions of his conquerors.

The last Dervish.

THE BATTLE OF MANILA BAY

(A.D. 1898)

WILLIS JOHN ABBOT

WHEN the battle was fought the first hour showed the immense superiority of the Americans in everything that goes to win victory; but as Commodore Dewey led his fleet along the coast of Luzon toward the harbor where he knew the enemy lay in waiting, he had nothing to expect but a desperate battle with a fleet not greatly his inferior. It must be remembered, that the Spanish ships were anchored in a harbor protected by shore batteries. To get at them the Americans had to pass down a channel guarded on either side by powerful forts armed with modern rifles. The harbor to be traversed before reaching the enemy was sixteen miles long, and it was only to be expected that it was plentifully besprinkled with mines.

Superiority of the Americans.

One seems to read in Dewey's first decision the effects of his training under the great Admiral Farragut. His fleet arrived off the mouth of Manila Bay at night. There was no stop to reconnoitre, no suggestion of "bot-

Arrival of the fleet.

tling up" the enemy after the Santiago fashion, no waiting until daylight might make it easier to run the gantlet of mines and batteries, no delay of any kind, but a quiet and immediate attack on the enemy. Only a brief wait for the moon to set, and then on, in single file, the *Olympia* leading, the *McCulloch* bringing up the rear, with all lights out except one lantern at the stern of each ship for the next to steer by. Seemingly, the Spaniards had no idea that an enemy was at their door. The great light that marked the entrance to the harbor gleamed as though to welcome the grim procession of ghostly gray ships stealing unaware upon their prey. The forts were as silent as though all defenders were dead. To the men on the ships it seemed that their progress was attended with the tumult of a thousand railroad trains. They walked with muffled tread and spoke in whispers lest Spaniards miles away might hear them, and marvelled that the rush of the vessels through the water and the white foam breaking away from the cleaving prows did not attract the attention of the enemy. Yet there came no sound of cannon, nor did any mine rend the plates of any stout ship. The last ship of the column, the *McCulloch,* gave the first alarm. From its smoke-stack, when coal was flung on the furnaces below, there flared up a red flame lighting up the waters and the rigging of the ships ahead. All turned expectantly toward

Entering the bay.

the batteries in anticipation of a shot, but no sound came. Again the unlucky beacon flared, and again, and after the third illumination the darkness to starboard was pierced by the flash of a gun on a rock called El Fraile. The first shot. The shell went wild, and the *Concord* responded with the fierce bellow of a 6-inch gun. There was no longer any attempt at secrecy, and cannon roared from the *Boston*, the *McCulloch*, and the *Concord*, the big ships at the head of the line passing on in silent dignity. The shot from El Fraile had done much more good than harm. It gave to the commodore, who with a Filipino insurgent by his side stood on the bridge of the *Olympia* piloting in the fleet, a clear idea of how the shore lay. That battery once passed, all the defences of the harbor's mouth were left behind, and there was nothing more to apprehend until the city, with its forts at Cavite, was reached —nothing, that is, except mines, against which no skill could avail and which might therefore be ignored. So the ships steamed sullenly on up the bay, the tension measurably Dawn breaks. lessened by the little spurt of fire, but with every man alert for the next development of the morning—for by this time the sudden dawn of the tropics was breaking.

The swift coming of day discovered to the eager gazers from the American ships not only the old town of Manila, with its clustering low roofs and towering cathedral, but a

The Spanish fleet.

sight which they had come all this way to see —the Spanish fleet—ten great ships with military tops showing across a low neck of land—lying at anchor under the batteries at Cavite, a suburb of the city where the navy yard, arsenal, and other military and naval establishments were placed. There was silence on the ships as the stirring spectacle was presented, and the men, many of whom had slept on the run in from the harbor's mouth, crowded to the points of vantage to gaze on it. With a glass, the roofs and quays of the city could be seen to be crowded with spectators; so it was evident that the short engagement with the battery at El Fraile had alarmed the city.

Breakfast is served.

As the men gazed, others passed up and down the decks of the men-of-war, distributing cups of hot coffee and biscuit, by orders of the commodore, who had no intention of having his sailors go into action hungry. The plan of the battle had been worked out already, and only a few signals from the flagship were necessary to place the fleet in the formation agreed on. As the signals fluttered from the gaff, black balls mounted to every peak on all the vessels, and breaking out, displayed the great battle-flags. At that the enemy growled out a word of warning with the 9-inch guns of Fort Lunetta, and the attacking column moved sullenly on to closer quarters. "Hold your fire," was the word passed on from the flagship, and save for two shots from the *Concord*

"Hold your fire."

no answer was made to the forts. Onward toward the Spanish fleet, which was maintaining a like silence, the fleet sped. A sudden muffled roar and a great volume of mud and water springing into the air right before the flagship told that the dreaded mines were near, and in an instant another exploded. Neither did any hurt, and with the explosion of the two the Spanish resources of that sort seemed to be exhausted. By this time the fleet was approaching the enemy nearly. On the bridge of the *Olympia* stood Commodore Dewey, Captain Gridley and Flag-Captain Lambert at his side. Though the Spanish ships now joined the forts in pouring a fire on the advancing foe, there was still no response. Just as the sun rose, red and glaring with midsummer heat, the commodore turned to the officer at his side and said, quietly, "You may fire now, Gridley, when ready." Gridley was ready, and almost on the instant an 8-inch shell hurtled out through the yellow smoke toward the enemy, now about 4,500 yards away. Presently a signal from the flagship conveyed to all the vessels a like permission, and the whole fleet was soon engaged.

Opening of the action.

On the flagship, before opening action, Dewey had assembled his men and given them this final word: "Keep perfectly cool, and pay attention to nothing but orders." This was the watchword throughout the American fleet

that morning, and, as the result, the fire was deliberate and deadly. The column—*Olympia, Baltimore, Raleigh, Petrel, Concord,* and *Boston,* in the order named—steamed along parallel to the Spanish ships, working every gun that could be brought to bear, and receiving the fire of ships and forts in return. The fire of the enemy was, as Dewey put it in his report, "vigorous, but generally ineffective." Down past the Spanish line the squadron moved, the port side of every ship a mass of flame and smoke, then circling around in a grand sweep—that made the Spaniards think for a moment they were pulling out of action—the column returned again on its course, and the men of the starboard batteries had a chance to try their skill while their fellows rested. Each turn brought them nearer the enemy; each broadside found the American gunnery improving. Five times the circuit was made, and then a signal fluttered from the yard of the *Olympia,* and the fleet turned away to the other side of the harbor, where the *McCulloch* and the colliers had been lying. The Spaniards raised a resounding cheer at the sight of what they supposed to be a retreat, and a telegram was instantly sent off, that the enemy had been compelled to haul off for repairs. A misinterpreted signal had caused the commodore to believe that ammunition for the 5-inch guns was running short, and as the smoke made it

Vigorous but ineffective fire.

An apparent retreat.

difficult, if not impossible, to ask each ship-captain by signal how much he had, it was determined to haul off and redistribute the ammunition if it were required. In the end, however, no necessity was found for this, and as there was time then for breakfast, the meal was served.

In the portion of the engagement prior to the intermission, the "first round," it might be called, the Spaniards had suffered heavily. The American fire had been both rapid and accurate. With the glasses, the shots could be seen striking the thin iron hulls of the Spanish ships, and by the time the third circuit had been made three were in flames. Stung into fury by the losses inflicted on his squadron, Admiral Montojo, just as the Americans were turning to begin their third circuit, slipped the cables of his flagship, and under full steam darted out as if with the intention of ramming the *Olympia,* or at any rate coming to close quarters. The dash was magnificent, but it was futile. As the *Reina Cristina* swung away from her fellows, the fire of the whole American fleet was concentrated upon her. As she clung stubbornly to her course, the storm of projectiles swept down upon her, pierced her hull like paper, swept her decks, and, bursting, spread death and fire on every side. Her bridge was shot away, her engines wounded. Superhuman gallantry could bear the punishment no longer, and, responding

Heavy Spanish losses.

The *Reina Cristina's* attack.

with difficulty to her helm, she turned to seek her former position. Just as her stern was presented to the American fire, an 8-inch gun on the *Olympia* was trained upon her, and its projectile sped forth on a murderous errand. It struck the Spaniard full in the stern, tore its way forward, killing men, shattering guns, exploding ammunition, piercing partitions and tearing up decks, until it exploded in her after-boiler. The wound was mortal. With flames leaping from her hatches, and the shrill screams of agonized men rising above the thunder of the battle, the *Reina Cristina* staggered back. One hundred and fifty of her men lay dead, and nearly a hundred wounded, —most of them sacrificed in Montojo's gallant effort to rush the American flagship. Another heavy loss fell upon the Spaniards while this act in the drama of battle was progressing. Thinking, no doubt, that the attention of the *Olympia* would be wholly centred upon the *Cristina,* the two Spanish torpedo boats slipped out, and made a run for the American fleet. One headed for the supply-ships, but was caught by the *Petrel,* which first drove her ashore, and then pounded her with rapid-fire guns until she blew up. The other, advancing on the *Olympia,* was struck amidships by a shell, broke in two, and disappeared like a broken bottle. So at Manila, as later at Santiago, it was demonstrated that torpedo boats are not the dangerous engines of war that had

Destruction of the torpedo-boats.

been thought,—at least not when they are in Spanish hands.

Three hours' intermission was taken by the American sailors after that first round. A leisurely breakfast, a critical examination of all guns and machinery that had been under strain, and the work of preparing an ample supply of fresh ammunition occupied the time. Then out fluttered the signals again, the crews went to their quarters, the great screws began to revolve, and once more the fighting ships bore down upon the unhappy enemy. Again the fleet revolved in a great circle of smoke and fire, though at closer range than before. The Spaniards, whose hopes had been roused by the stoppage of the action, were demoralized by its renewal. Their fire was wild, their resistance half-hearted. The *Reina Cristina*—no longer the flagship, for Montojo had transferred his flag to the *Isla de Cuba*—was blown up by the shells of the *Baltimore*. After her, speedily followed the *Don Juan de Austria,* her *coup de grâce* being administered by the *Raleigh*. The little *Petrel* ran into the shoal water and set fire to the *El Correo,* the *Marques del Duero,* the *Don Juan de Austria, Isla de Luzon, Isla de Cuba,* and *General Lezo,* all of which had been disabled by the fire of the fleet, and most of which had been run ashore after surrendering. Admiral Montojo with great gallantry fought his second flagship until her guns were

Three hours' intermission.

Montojo transfers his flag.

silenced and the flames were making her decks untenable. Then he abandoned her to her fate and escaped to the city, whence, it is said, a great concourse of people had come out that morning to see the "pigs of Yankees" annihilated. Finally the *Don Antonio de Ulloa,* the last ship left fighting, sunk with her flag still nailed to her mast, and a well-placed shot entered the magazine at Cavité, ending the resistance of the shore batteries. Then the signal was flung out from the flagship, "The enemy has surrendered," the hot, weary, and smoke-begrimed men swarmed cheering out of turrets and up from the bowels of the ships, the flagship's band broke out with *The Star-Spangled Banner,* and the victory of Manila, the first victory in the war with Spain, was won. And at how light a cost!

The last ship sinks.

As each captain came over the *Olympia's* side, he replied to the eager query, "How many killed?" in a manner that indicated a very much mixed state of mind. Mingled with satisfaction at having lost no man was an evident desire to have it understood that the lack of loss was no proof of an absence of danger.

The cheap victory.

"Only eight wounded," replied Captain Dyer of the *Baltimore*—"none seriously. But six shells struck us, and two burst inboard without hurting any one."

"Not a dashed one!" was the rollicking way the next captain reported.

"None killed and none wounded," was the

apologetic reply of the next one; "but I don't yet know how it happened. I suppose you fellows were all cut up!"

"My ship wasn't hit at all," was the next report, made with a sort of defiant air, as if the speaker would like to hear it insinuated that he had had any part in keeping his men in a safe place.

When the *Boston's* captain came alongside it was feared that he for certain would have a serious list of casualties, for it was known that his ship had been on fire. And when he announced neither killed nor wounded, the news quickly spread through the flagship, and the men cheered vociferously.

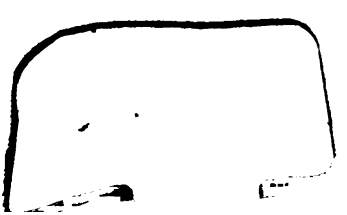
Spanish losses.

For the Spaniards there was no such immunity as attended the Americans. No miracles interposed between them and the American shells, perhaps because the latter were more skilfully directed. The exact losses in Admiral Montojo's squadron are not known. His ten ships and two torpedo boats were totally destroyed, and the report of General Augustin, the Governor-General, put the number of killed and wounded at about 618, though there is reason to believe it was nearer a thousand.

[In 1899, Captain Dreyfus obtains a second trial: he is again condemned but pardoned. The Peace Conference meets at The Hague. Spain sells her remaining Pacific possessions

to Germany. The Khalifa is killed on the White Nile. The Crown buys up the Niger Company. The disputes between the Boers and Uitlanders, whose demands are backed by Great Britain, culminate in war. The Boers enter Natal and besiege Mafeking and Kimberley. The Boers are defeated at Glencoe and Elandslaagte, but win at Nicholson's Nek and surround Ladysmith. Methuen and Gatacre both receive severe checks, and Buller is routed at Colenso. Roberts is appointed to the chief command with Kitchener as second. Marconi experiments with wireless telegraphy.]

The Boer war.

1899.

END OF VOLUME SEVEN